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THE AMERICAN PUBLIC EXECUTIVE*

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THERE are a number of points that I might make for myself standing in this great city of India and in this premier Institute. First of them is that I am not Dr. Paul Appleby. I have fortunately his job only but not his wisdom. I have inherited his desk, but not his knowledge of India.

Woodrow Wilson, when he was Governor of the State of New Jersey was awakened in the middle of the night one night by a politician of his acquaintance for the purpose of informing him that a member of the Governor's Cabinet had died of a heart attack a few moments before ; Wilson was not very clear as to what he could do about it and why this sad news could not wait till 7 or 8 a.m. next morning. He found himself saying, "Well, Mr. so and so will be a hard man to replace." The politician was quick to answer. "Well, Sir", he said, " I rather thought I might replace him." Governor Wilson was equally quick with his retort. "Well," he said, "that's all right for me, if it is all right with the undertaker."

Here, I am afraid, I am not a good replacement for Paul Appleby. I do not exactly know what I am doing, discussing the leadership of executives in the presence of so much executive leadership. This *Institute* itself is an extraordinary evidence of the executive leadership of Shri Bapat and Prof. Menon and many others, in and out of the Government, extraordinary evidence of the interest in this subject of the past, present and prospective members of the Indian public service.

Perhaps the most useful thing that I could do this evening would be to discuss a point of view, a way of looking at the American Public Executive ; to try to describe some of the conditions of the jungle,

* Text of a lecture delivered at the I.I.P.A. on November 12, 1957.

the American bureaucratic jungle, in which he lives and dies; and to raise the question whether any of this experience is relevant to the development of Indian public administration.

II

The political weather in our bureaucratic jungle is set by the condition of the society it represents, and particularly, by two aspects of that society : by the size of our country and the open character of our society. You are familiar with some of the indices of our size and I will not dwell on it. It may seem curious to say, standing here in the capital of a nation internationally famous for its large population, that the United States is actually growing faster than India. Over the last decade our population has increased 16 per cent; we have more old people but also more young people and more Westerners. In the next 20 years, it is estimated that our population will rise by another 50 or 60 millions. Nearly all of this increase will take place in the cities; and this extraordinary growth of population, starting as populations generally do with the children, will create some massive problems even for as relatively well-off a society as ours. What Barbara Ward has called the "thundering herd of pattering feet" is going to turn up in our schools during the next few years, and in our colleges not long thereafter, and in public and private employment after that.

Our productivity increase, another index of size, is also dramatic and is also known to you. It seems curious to reflect that a hundred years ago two-thirds of our motive power was provided by animals and human beings; nowadays, something less than one per cent is provided by anything other than machines. It seems curious to reflect that, in its whole history, mankind has managed to concentrate energy by a factor of ten, yet in the last decade or two, with the development of atomic energy it suddenly has managed to concentrate energy by a factor running into the millions. It seems curious to reflect that after the long history of starvation on several continents, there can now be a country like ours in which there are hardly any serious food shortages. Indeed, a recent study reports that one quarter of the American population is sufficiently overweight to provide a real health problem—and I know it well because I am part of that quarter.

It is curious to reflect that there is a society, the United States, in which you can get our entire population, inflated though it is in numbers and in per capita avoirdupois, into *the front seats* of the automobiles we now own. We would not of course be able to drive because we would not be able to get through the traffic, and even if

we got through, we would not be able to park; but nevertheless, we could all get into the front seats. Here is a society in which, starting not long ago with less than 5 per cent of the college-age population in colleges; and the estimate now is that within the next couple of decades, more than 50 per cent of the population in the 18 to 22 age-range will be attending college.

The Twentieth Century Fund, in its recent study of America's needs and resources, put it this way: "Our vast productive plant is a flexible man-made resource which, barring atomic devastation will prove equal to any imaginable need." That is quite a claim. But so far the claim is well documented by the facts.

Concurrent with this tremendous growth is, of course, the necessary and inevitable growth of Government. I do not know how many of you have had the opportunity to read the acceptance speeches made by President Eisenhower and Vice-President Nixon, the electoral candidates in 1956 of the Republican Party. On that occasion, at the moment of accepting the nomination for high office of the more "conservative" of our political parties, both officials made a full and an unequivocal commitment to full employment, the kind of commitment that used to be called "socialist." Moreover, the Republican Party, following by some years the Democratic Party's lead, made a vigorous commitment to rising welfare standards at home, and a commitment to international leadership. The last of these commitments reflects not our capacity for leadership, but the responsibility unavoidably thrust on a nation which produces more than 40 per cent of the world's gross product.

As a consequence of these several commitments, the United States Government finds itself intervening in the United States economy on a massive scale—and on a time-schedule so sudden that the depth and character of this intervention is not yet well understood in the rest of the world. Indeed, it is not very well understood at home.

The Government has intervened to lay the basis for production with a large programme of public power, with a 13 million dollar programme of public highways just approved. It has intervened to conserve resources and protect people through the development of river-valley projects with which you are very much familiar here. It has intervened to improve living standards: At the beginning of the New Deal, 10 per cent of our farmers had electricity in their homes; by the end of the War, 90 per cent of our farmers were working and living with electricity.

Government has intervened to prop up prices—especially farm prices, because the farmers appear to be a little more effective in making their desires known to the national and state legislatures than are the people who are interested in higher prices in other sectors of the economy. The Government has intervened to establish a general floor on welfare through the social security programme, through a programme of unemployment compensation and also through a programme of special welfare benefits for veterans. In our society, by the way veterans will soon constitute 50% of the nation's family units—a development which will raise in an acute form the question as to whether there should be a special welfare programme for veterans that is not applicable across the board to the whole population. Government has intervened to defend the nation, and spends one-half to two-thirds of the so-called “peacetime” national budget for defense purposes. Government has intervened, if a trifle reluctantly, to provide education for all, and it has intervened to promote the effective use of leisure. Our national parks are visited each year by a number of visitors which exceeds our total population.

And finally, our Government has intervened in the economy to promote more Government. Under the guise of “urban renewal,” for example, it is financing studies of the newly inflated condition of our metropolitan cities, in order to begin the process of inventing a new level of Government, the metropolitan government—the first structural renovation that we have needed since the adoption of the United States' Constitution. Government's use of resources for these purposes now add up to something like 1/5th to 1/4th of our Gross National Product, and is spent through the staggering total of 117,000 different governmental units. Americans are much governed ; whether adequately governed is another question.

This is, very briefly, the story of the *size* of the American society, over which our Government has to rule. But our society has another characteristic too which is even more directly relevant to the nature of Government. It is an *open* society, which requires the Government to act as a Government of free men, a Government *by* the people.

These are old words, but in the second half of the twentieth century their content is sufficiently new to be widely misunderstood. For some of the old ways of looking at American Government are quite obsolete today.

For example, we all have read many times that in the United States, Government is divided into three parts. A student cannot get through the third year of high school without learning this particular point

of doctrine. I am not at all sure that in *the most meaningful sense* it is true any more. I am not at all sure "the separation of powers," the phrase which has been so much identified with the study of American Government, should not now be retranslated as "the diffusion of power." It so happens I myself had an early lesson on this subject.

It happened when I was an "intern"—that is, an uncompensated learner—in the American Government before the Second World War. My internship was rather special, it was not in the Executive Branch of Government; it was in the Washington office of Senator "Young Bob" LaFollette of Wisconsin. I found myself on one occasion representing the Senator at a claims hearing before the Veterans Administration. I did not have very much to do; I was just supposed to stand there to look large and representative, to dramatize by my presence the fact that the Senator was interested and that if the Claims Board did not give this veteran from Wisconsin what he wanted, undoubtedly the Veterans Administrator would hear from the Capitol. So I stood there, with plenty of time to think, and I asked myself, "Where is this separation of powers that I hear so much about? Here I am, a legislative bureaucrat, trying to intervene in the efforts of an executive bureaucracy to perform a judicial function."

The more you look at the actual process of Government in Washington, the more you see that every subject is participated in by all the three Branches in one way or another. Every part of the Government has been involved in the school de-segregation issue—though nobody has quite settled it yet. I spent thirteen years in the American Government (with a couple of years off to work in an international agency), and I cannot recall any piece of legislation under which I operated which was written by Congress or Congressional staff; each law was written in the Executive Branch of the Government. By the same token, the legislature—the Congress—participates with appalling vigour in the executive processes of the Government. Senator McCarthy, though he was rather dramatic and interesting for other reasons as well, provided us the clearest recent example of trampling on the prerogatives of the executive with (at first) the executive's full consent. In many other ways the Congress applies pressure on individual matters of administration. Civil service reform has made too much progress in the 75 years since the passage of the first civil service legislation to make it possible for Congress to intervene effectively in most personnel matters. In many agencies, in fact, an appointment which has political push behind it is in danger of dying of neglect. But on matters of policy and on

matters of administration, on the issues about what the personnel, once hired, are going to do, and how much money they will have with which to do it, the power of Congress, particularly the investigating power of Congress, has been skillfully and importantly used to participate in the executive process of Government. I am not passing judgment on this trend; I am just stating what is a fact. Power is not so much divided as diffused.

Another canard we hear about American Government is that we have a two-party system. It is not clear to me that we have a two-party system. For the limited purpose of electing people to office, there are indeed two party labels, labels which mean different things in different parts of the country. But for the purpose of deciding issues of public policy, we do not have a two-party system; we have a coalition government that is almost as chaotic as that of contemporary France. We have just as many splinter parties in the Congress as the French Assembly has. The primary advantage of our system is that when you reach an impasse in the Congress, it does not prevent you from having a Cabinet.

When, as the member of the Executive Branch of the Government, I found myself responsible for Congressional relations on a particular programme—in my case the economic side of the Mutual Security Programme, I found that my job was to help build a coalition within the Congress. And I found that my little lists of Senators and Congressmen, as to who was for our programme and who was against it, who might be influenced one way or the other and by what considerations, were entirely different from other coalitions that were being built by my colleagues in other departments of the Government. All of them were promoting something called “the President’s programme,” at that time the programme of President Truman. But each of them was helping build a different coalition—there was a Health coalition, an Education coalition, a Defence coalition, a Mutual Security coalition. There were, at that time, at least 17 or 18 different major coalitions in the Congress; all of which were being used to promote something called the President’s Programmes or the Executive Budget.

So, we have Coalition Government. You will find it so if you go through one of our Congresses, select all of the major issues that come up at one session and see whether any of those issues could have been passed with the unaided vote of either Republicans or Democrats present and voting. (Perhaps this would be a good research project for a student at your Institute’s School of Public

Administration when it gets started.) I do not think in the last Congress you will find any major issues on which President Eisenhower was supported by the unaided vote of the Republicans that voted with him; each time the question was *which* Democrats and *which* Republicans would support the President, on what issue and with what sectional interest involved. He always had plenty of Republicans against him and plenty of Democrats for him.

III

Does this discussion of American politics seem a digression from my topic of "executive leadership"? It is, in fact, directly germane to the main point. In our system, the American public executive cannot concentrate only (or at top levels, even primarily) on internal administration; he must equally concern himself with the building of consent for the programme he is administering. To put it another way, he must be interested in "politics," as well as in "administration." I am not referring here to party politics. The parties are not important for the purpose of deciding *what* is going to be done; they are only important for deciding as to *who* is going to do it. The process of deciding what is going to be done is much more complex and as I have just indicated it has very little to do with the party labels of individual Congressmen, Senators and Presidents. In international relations we speak of "open covenants openly arrived at." In our kind of Government, you can describe the process of decision-making as "close decisions openly arrived at."

This confusion of parties and of the branches of Government is closely related to two other kinds of confusion, both of which affect conditions under which the American public executive has to work. There is, to begin with, a confusion in the levels of Government. Most important domestic subjects are handled not at one but at all levels of Government. It is no longer true to say that if you study local government, you will primarily be studying problems like public order and social welfare, problems that touch the life of the people in the local community. The problems that touch the life of the people are now the direct concern of Government at all levels, local, state and national. A housing programme may be largely, in theory, in the hands of a housing authority in a local municipality, but it must follow on standards that are set for it by the Federal Government through a State Housing Department, as a condition attached to the Federal and State funds the housing authority is using. The health welfare programme is handled partly by a local government but partly also by local offices of the State Departments concerned and of Federal agencies such as the Social Security

System, the Veterans Administration and the U.S. Public Health Service. In Syracuse, New York, there are 49 different Federal agencies of Government with enough business to handle in the Syracuse area to justify a special office there; and there are some 60 State agencies with an impact on the citizens of the city. For any individual citizen, this maze is getting considerably more complicated than any of the famous mazes of history, like Hampton Maze.

So, you find that American public executive not only has a consent-building function *vis-a-vis* the legislature. He also has a function of consent-building, of politics, as between his agency and other public agencies. If he is a Federal official, that means he may have problems of "external relations" with other Federal agencies, state agencies, local agencies, school districts, soil conservation districts and any number of other administrative units of local government.

Let us take two illustrations of this which are worth mentioning. One is the plight of the city planner. Now it used to be that the city planner had a certain amount of control over his own destiny and the destiny of the city in which he was employed. He could draw a plan of how his city ought to look; then the power of local political authorities, if they agreed with the plan, could be applied to put it into effect through zoning regulations and other uses of public authority. It didn't always work this way, but the point is that local authority was substantially sufficient to carry out the plan if those who wielded the authority wanted to use it.

But nowadays, most of the things that happen to a place like Syracuse are not decided anywhere near Syracuse. Some are crucial private decisions, determinations of the supply of automobiles that are made in Detroit, industrial location decisions which are made by business executives in the skyscrapers of New York. There are public decisions, decisions about the location of highways, about building standards, about the cost of money and many, many other things which are all made in Washington and Albany and other places far removed from the Mayor's office in Syracuse. Indeed it now turns out that the city planner may or may not have a background in physical design or architecture, but he absolutely must have the understanding of governmental process necessary to know who is deciding what within this maze of federal and local bureaucracies, the ability to predict what outside authorities are going to do what to his precious community, and an unusual skill in lobbying for his own city with the public agencies of the State and Federal Governments. These functions are certainly a far cry from what used to be called "planning."

Consider, again, the plight of the United States Ambassador today. It used to be that the ambassador's function was to represent his country and supervise a small staff of reporters and negotiators who aided him in this limited task. But in 1957, in a place like the Island of Taiwan, the American Ambassador finds himself more or less responsible for the activities of 10,000 Americans there. Even here in India, he finds himself worrying about the activities of several hundreds of families who are there not only for the traditional diplomatic reasons, but to administer a large programme of technical and economic aid and to manage a sizable information programme. Thus in many parts of the world, the job of being an ambassador has become a major executive post. It is no longer so clear as it used to be that Foreign Service training, training in diplomacy, is the best training for the performance by the ambassador of his primary executive functions. These are only two of many possible examples of the same fact : that American public executives, the top Americans in many kinds of Government posts, face a rapidly growing range of activities over which they have to spread their necessarily limited skill and understanding.

Beyond the diffusion of power among the traditionally "separate" branches of our government, and the confusion among the several levels of government in the United States, there is also another kind of confusion—that between "public" and "private" functions. We have seen the extraordinary depth of Government intervention in the American economy. I won't go so far as to say that the U.S.A. is the most socialistic country in the world; although if you were to define socialism as egalitarianism plus vigorous Government commitment to full employment and prosperity, I am not at all sure whether the phrase would not come surprisingly close to the mark. In any event, the functions of Government must grow rapidly; yet it is a fundamental tenet of American politics that such growth should be restrained from growing further. It is this chronic dilemma which over the last decade especially has tended to blur the line between what is called public and what is called private.

It works this way : Our individual functions of Government continue to grow. The Government has to have a foreign aid programme, the Government has to have a housing programme, the Government has to have an atomic energy programme. But each increase in function is confronted with our rooted American prejudice against having the Government "get into business." To resolve this dilemma, we try to fool ourselves by allocating public functions to private organizations, usually by the use of the Government's

contracting power. And so one of the largest divisions of the General Electric Company, an institution famous around the world as an example of successful private enterprise, is, in fact, a socialized industry—an Atomic Energy Division made possible largely by contracts, guarantees and indemnities which represent various forms of public subsidy to private enterprise. In somewhat the same way, and for similar reasons, we find every university heavily dependent these days on Government-financed research projects, especially in engineering and scientific fields but to some extent in the social-science field as well. We now find that in the housing programme, although houses are actually built by individual private contractors, the crucial margin of financial risk is largely absorbed by the Government. We find, with the defense programme running at something like one-twelfth of our Gross National Product, whole industries have grown up which are utterly dependent on bureaucratic decisions about the financing of war contracts—the aircraft industry and the units that produce missiles are notable examples. In the foreign aid programme an increasing number of private contractors are working for the Federal Government overseas, while maintaining their standing in the popular mind as “private enterprise.” As a private citizen I happen to be a member of the Board of Directors of one such enterprise, a company specializing in international economic development which (like some of its gigantic brothers and sisters in the airframe and electronics fields) does 100% of its business with a single Government agency.

The list could be indefinitely extended. Banking institutions, once the very heartland of the private enterprise system, now do an extraordinary proportion of their business in the form of Government paper, and slavishly follow the government’s lead on the fixing of rates of interest. Most of the national taxes now collected in the United States are, in fact, collected not by the Treasury’s Internal Revenue Service but by private industry and other non-government institutions, through withholding schemes and point-of-sale collection devices. In many, many different ways the Government is going into “partnership” with private business, a liaison in which the Government, not the business, is the enterprising, risk-taking partner. The moral is that the American public executive needs to have a much deeper understanding of how this curiously “mixed” economy of ours really works, than used to be necessary in the days when the ruling doctrine was “that government is best which governs least.”

The difficulty of deciding where to draw the line between “public” and “private” is compounded by the presence, within the executive

bureaucracy, of persons and agencies frankly representative of outside private interests. Within the Federal Government, many employees of the U.S. Department of Agriculture are quite openly and naturally regarded by all concerned including themselves, as a kind of farmers' defense league inside the executive branch of government. The Federal Power Commission, which regulates the power business both public and private, is not regarded as a neutral public-service umpire, but as a citadel to be won either by the public-power advocates or the private-power advocates. Similarly the National Labour Relations Board is regarded as a citadel to be won by labour or management; during the 1930's it was captured by the Congress of Industrial Organizations; now it has been captured by people with more of a management tinge to their thinking. More and more we have thus "institutionalized the inside track." By so doing we have confronted our public executives not only with the need for a deep understanding of how the system works, but also with an important obligation. With a legislature composed primarily of representatives of sectional interests and with an executive branch that is composed increasingly of agencies which have what you might almost call incestuous relationships with outside organizations, the concept of public interest tends to get blurred; in American slang, the public interest gets lost in the shuffle.

It therefore becomes more and more important (1) that the ranking public executive—the President, the Governor, the Mayors and chief executives—be an active leader, because they are the men hired by the people as a whole to take into account the situation as a whole; and (2) that the chief executive has at his command an adequate "generalist" corps of professional administrators, extending far down into the bureaucracy, whose primary dedication is to the public interest and not to sectional or economic or other partial interests.

I do not wish to imply that it is necessarily wrong for private interests to be, in effect, represented inside the government. In an "open" society, where nobody's word is the final law and all decisions are ultimately appealable to a majority of those voting in an election, it is probably inevitable that each group of citizens should undertake to make sure that its vital interests are protected by being trampled by other groups of citizens with other vital interests. Since the major questions affecting each citizen are ultimately adjudicated by governmental action of one sort or another, it is natural that the governmental decision-making process should become a free-and-easy battleground among those groups who feel their vital interests are at

stake in any particular matter of public policy. The American System has amply demonstrated its viability by making possible a fabulous economic growth while maintaining a fabulous degree of personal freedom for the individual. What concerns us here is the question : "What makes it work ?" And what I am suggesting is that the crucial element, the balance-wheel in the system if you will, is the personal character, the administrative understanding, and the professional skill of our public executives. The defence of the public interest, the task of making sure that no one private interest gains too much at the expense of the vital interests of other private groups or individuals, is entrusted especially to the top political executive and to the professional administrators on his staff. What makes them *professional* is precisely their live sense of the public interest and their complete independence of any outside interests for tenure in their job.

Perhaps it is misleading for me to speak so often of a "decision-making process". There is a sense in which a man in an important executive post never really makes a decision; what he does is to mediate a decision, finding a workable "next step" that serves the public interest as he sees it, strikes most of the interests involved as fair and reasonable, and does not so outrage any powerful interest that it can successfully appeal the "decision" to higher authority—whether that authority is an elective administrator or the electorate itself.

I was once responsible for supervising the work of a man hired to be a Division Director in Economic Co-operation Administration, the agency that managed the Marshall Plan aid to Europe and started technical assistance and economic aid programmes in a number of Asian countries. This man, a Californian, had been used to running a one-man show for 25 years, and he took the title of his new job seriously. He was Director, and he proceeded to direct everybody concerned with economic aid to the countries for which he was responsible. He soon found that most of the tools with which he was supposed to work were not in fact under his control; instead, they were scattered around under the management of commodity directors, directors of contract negotiation, controllers, lawyers, personnel directors, budget directors, and many others who had their own concept of their own responsibilities and certainly didn't regard themselves as subordinates of our new division director. After two or three months, the man came to me in my office and I knew that he would survive the test of survival in the executive branch of the Government. He said "I did not first really understand about my being Director of this Division. I thought that I was to direct the

programme. Now I think I understand it better. I am not supposed to make any decisions at all. On the other hand, I am supposed to make sure that the decision gets made. I am really a broker. Is that it?" "Yes", I replied, "that is precisely it." In the Federal establishment, the President, and the other chief executives at other levels of government, is the chief "broker." He needs enough professional "brokers" working for him, dedicated to the public interest, to make sure the whole machine operates "for the greatest good of the greatest number."

IV

To fulfill the obligation thus placed upon him, the American Public Executive means that he has to have certain important qualities. He must, of course, be imbued with public interest. He has to be at ease with this growing complexity. He will be wise to ask himself E.B. White's question with which we confront students in Public Administration on their very first day at Syracuse: "Have you considered how complicated things can get, what with one thing always leading to another?" Just think about that question for a moment. I would be prepared to say that if one lesson from our experience is transferable to India, it is this: unless a person is really in love with complexity, he will not be a first-rate practitioner of public administration.

The American public executive must also be a leader of men—with what Paul Appleby calls "sense of action." He has to know that it is always "his turn" to act. This is not easy for a professional public administrator to learn in a course of study in Public Administration; from the point of view of the central administration—the man who is using the personnel tool, the budget tool, the O & M tool, the administrative-law tool and the public relations tool to carry out a particular programme—these so-called "now to do it" courses sometimes look like "how not to do it" courses. It is the professional administrator's job to make sure that these potentially negative controls in administration are turned into positive supports for a programme. This is his main charge.

Next, the American public executive must be bright enough to do his own thinking. This may seem obvious. But many people who come into U.S. Government from other levels of activity harbour the illusion that they can delegate the planning and thinking-ahead function. Yet looking-ahead is one function which the top executive in the public service will delegate at his peril. In a private corporation it may work well enough to have a Vice President for research and development who does all the thinking, but in the Government this will not do.

Finally, the American public executive has to be his own public relations man. When a Senate Committee wants to know what your department is doing, it does not want your deputy with a mimeographed statement. It does not even want you with a mimeographed statement. The Senators will be glad to take that statement and put it on the record, but then they will say : "And now what we really want to know is *this*." In that atmosphere of a congressional committee, a department head or a Bureau Chief or a Division Chief—whether he is a civil servant or a political appointee, it makes no difference—has to be able to think on his feet. He has to handle his own relationships with the people, inside the Government and outside, on whose consent the programme he is administering depends. He cannot delegate this task. He must be his own public-relations man.

When Charles Wilson was originally appointed Secretary of Defence, you may remember that there was an argument about whether he would be forced to sell his General Motors stock in order to avoid a conflict of interests. In the course of this heated controversy on the subject there was a two-day hearing of the Senate Committee involved. After hours of gruelling testimony, the President of the largest private corporation in the world revealed how much he had learned about public relations at the age of sixty-two. "The thing that perhaps I overlooked myself", he mused, "was that not only did I have to operate honestly and fairly without prejudice, but all the people should also think that that was the way I was operating, and that part of it I did not quite appraise." It is a commentary on the difference between the qualities required for success in government and in business that this businessman had reached the top of the industrial pyramid without having "quite appraised" the ancient lesson about evil and the appearance of evil.

The contrasting example is that of Paul Hoffman—an unfair choice, perhaps, since Hoffman was once my own boss. Here was a man who handled his own public relations; his training as a salesman of Studebakers carried over into his successful salesmanship of the Marshall Plan while he was its Administrator. I remember his telling us once in staff meeting that we should answer every letter in detail later on. "When I ran a filling station," he went on, "I found that a man wouldn't wait for gas more than two or three minutes if nobody paid any attention to him. But if you gave him a big hello and explained that there were several cars ahead of him, he would sit there quite happily for a quarter of an hour !" This man had some

understanding of the problem of building a relationship with the consumer of any Government programme—the people.

If you think of the list of qualities essential for the Government executive in our system—that he must be imbued with public interest, that he must be at ease with complexity, he must be leader of men, he must do his own thinking and be his own public-relations man—you see how fruitless is the attempt to draw a sharp line between something called the “political executive” and something called the senior civil servant. The Second Hoover Commission has tried to draw such a line, with analytically disastrous results. The fact is that in our “open” society, where *all* government officials have both an internal management function and an external consent-building function, the line between “politician” and “administrator” can be drawn in a Report but cannot be sharply drawn—or, indeed, readily found—in the real world outside. You can say, “This man is in the job because of a political appointment; this other man is a member of the permanent civil service, and got his job by promotion from within under a merit system.” But this does not really tell you very much about the relative responsibilities of the two men. For in the American system both of them—the “political executive” and the “civil servant”—share both halves of the public executive’s job : they each have to rally political consent for their programme at the same time as they are helping to administer it. Our system does not operate like the British system; an understanding of American government is impeded by assuming that it does.

The features that are unique to American Government are the product of our size, the heterogeneous character of our nation, its many sections and many kinds of people plus the pervasive conviction among nearly all of them that man is free—and that the nature of his self-government should reflect that fact even at the expense of a certain surface orderliness. To go with a society both big and open, we must have a big Government that manages in spite of its size to maintain reasonably free access by all the people to its complex decision-making processes.

V

Now the question I would like to leave with you is the following—and I ask it not because I have an answer but because I do not. Your Government in India is, broadly speaking, built on a British chassis. The model you have copied is the model of a somewhat aristocratic civil service, screened off from undue contact with the obligation to build political consent for governmental policy and programme. But your society is neither small nor homogeneous; it

is so large that you have already established a moderately decentralized system of administration—though to American eyes it still looks remarkably centralized. Nor is your society “closed.” Your own revolutionary drive for independence, your movement toward greater social equality and greater opportunity for the many; and the enthusiasm for rapid economic development which is dramatized in your Second Five-Year Plan—these trends preordain the character of India, as a dynamically “open” society. In these circumstances will you not be forced to move away from the British concept of administration—not toward ours, but toward an indigenously Indian system that has some of the features of our large, federal, and mildly chaotic administrative practice ?

You here have the challenge, as do we, of creating new institutions. We have our metropolitan-area problems; we suddenly have one per cent of our population overseas; both of these new conditions create for us new tasks of institution-building. You face challenges of equal interest to a student of administration, of even greater difficulty, certainly of equal relevance to the future of mankind.

You have the opportunity—indeed, the obligation to yourselves—not to copy anybody else’s institutions, but to invent some of your own, taking from others only what you need, not what they think you should have. You have the opportunity—not always grasped in your society or in ours—of addressing yourselves to the problems to be solved rather than to the doctrines to be debated. Your problem is not to decide that tired old question, whether you will have a system of socialism or capitalism. You won’t get either one. By the time you get through, your system of administration will look so different from either of those anachronistic doctrines, based as they are on nineteenth-century European models that have long since been swept away by events, that you will have to invent a new name for India’s theory of government. And a good thing, too. The world is perishing for lack of usable new political theory.

As you approach the task of building Indian institutions to solve Indian problems, I will presume to bring you from the Maxwell School only one scrap of technical advice. Look again at Alexander Pope’s *Essay on Man*, and persevere until you come to the famous couplet which can both justify and inspire your new Indian Institute of Public Administration :

“For forms of government let fools contest;
Whate’er is best administered is best.”

PUBLIC ENTERPRISES AND PARLIAMENTARY CONTROL

Balvantray Mehta

(The article on "Accountability in the Corporate Sector" by Shri D.L. Mazumdar, I.C.S., in the last issue of the I.J.P.A., dealt with the subject primarily from the angle of internal administration. In the present article the matter is examined by a well-known public man and legislator as a problem of external control.—Ed.)

THE concept of state enterprises as a tool in the economic development of a country is not of very recent origin. While its actual development in this country, except for Railways and Post and Telegraphs, virtually took place in the period following the attainment of Independence in 1947, the idea of developing key industries through public ownership is much older; it undoubtedly agitated the minds of many political leaders in India even before Independence. Underlying all these early ideas and subsequent action, especially the appointment and work of the National Planning Committee appointed by the Indian National Congress under the chairmanship of Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, was the long-felt urge for economic development of the country. However, the issue of public *vis-a-vis* private sector was not seriously posed during these early considerations; it was the Government's Industrial Policy Resolution of 1948, which, for the first time, enunciated the respective roles of state and private enterprises in the economic development of the country. Later, the approach and objectives were defined in the Directive Principles of State Policy which were enshrined in the new Constitution of India. It was laid down, *inter alia*, (i) that the ownership and the control of the material resources of the community should be so evenly distributed as to subserve the common good, and (ii) that the operation of the economic system should not result in the concentration of wealth and means of production to the common detriment. These principles were given a more precise form when Parliament accepted Socialistic Pattern of Society as the national objective of social and economic policies. Besides, the approach had to be governed by practical considerations also, especially since, in view of the extent of underdevelopment of the country, it was apparent that a large number of industries would have to be started at the same time, many of which would be of a monopolistic nature. Thus, the political goal as well

as the need for planned and rapid development required that all industries of basic and strategic importance, as well as others which are necessary and require considerable investment, be publicly owned. The various schemes in regard to the expansion of the public sector in the Five Year Plans are directed towards the realization of this objective. The extent of growth and the importance of the public sector in the last ten years may be judged from the fact that some 45 concerns with a capital investment of Rs. 275 crores, besides a smaller number managed departmentally, have been started by the Central Government to manage public undertakings during this period. With the purposeful expansion of the Public Sector as part of the national policy there is no doubt that it will progressively play an increasingly important role in governmental activities as well as in the national economy.

The Forms of State Enterprises

Organisationally, the undertakings in the public sector may work under the conventional departmental system of management or may *generally* be given, in keeping with modern trends, a corporate status. While the former would be set up and would function in the same manner as any government department, the latter would be established either by an enactment of the Parliament or by executive action under the Companies Act with funds voted by Parliament. The principal advantage in setting up corporate bodies outside the purely governmental sector is that they possess autonomy and flexibility to facilitate smooth and efficient working on business principles and are free from the hampering procedures and influences traditionally associated with Government departments. The intention, therefore, in giving public enterprises a corporate form, is to quote President Roosevelt, that they would be "clothed with the power of Government, but possessed of the flexibility of private enterprise", so as to combine the advantages of private enterprise with public responsibility.

Justification for Parliamentary Control

While Governmental control and, therefore, Parliamentary control, over departmentally managed undertakings can be as complete and as effective as desired by the Government and Parliament, the corresponding position in respect of the corporate and other autonomous undertakings requires careful consideration. The accountability to Parliament is, no doubt, the fullest in the case of government departments and departmentally-managed units, and adequate checks and counter-checks have been provided both within the governmental

machinery and by Parliament to ensure that the funds allotted to them are utilised reasonably well. The position is, however, fluid in the case of public undertakings managed by autonomous bodies. It has to be appreciated that public enterprises, even though autonomous for purposes of day-to-day administration and functioning, form an integral part of the governmental activities. Having initially provided the funds required to set up the undertakings and having bestowed on them the necessary autonomy and flexibility in operation, Parliament has a responsibility to see that the funds are utilised properly and efficiently, as in the case of departments and units in the purely governmental sector. This is the least that Parliament owes the people whose chosen representatives sit in it. In fact, one might even argue that, considering the size of public funds provided to these bodies and the implications of the autonomy allowed to them, Parliament has a greater duty and responsibility in regard to the corporate enterprises than in the case of departmental units. The principle of the accountability of publicly-owned autonomous undertakings to Parliament, and through it to the public, has, therefore, to be accepted; it cannot be made a matter of controversy.

The difficulty comes in, however, when the principle is to be given practical shape, and, also when its form and extent have to be defined. This question has engaged the minds of several authorities, particularly in the United Kingdom where the Labour Government undertook extensive nationalisation to socialise various key industries. Some authorities held that Parliament by creating corporate autonomous enterprises had passed a self-denying ordinance in regard to their accountability as well as the control to be exercised over them, except in regard to those powers which were reserved to be exercised by authorities directly responsible to Parliament, and also that prying into the affairs of these bodies would dampen their initiative and enterprise and thereby affect their efficiency. Others contended that adequate control by Parliament over corporate state enterprises to ensure their accountability was desirable in the interest of their efficient management itself. It is, however, evident that in order to ensure the healthy growth of these enterprises and their efficient functioning, as well as to secure the maximum benefits from the public funds spent on them, a golden mean between the two extremes of *laissez faire* and excessive interference has got to be found. Having set up these enterprises on a slightly different organisational pattern, Parliament naturally has to allow a certain amount of flexibility in regard to the control to be exercised by it from time to time, the nature, extent and form of control varying with the nature of public enterprise, the stage of its progress and other relevant circumstances. Further,

having made it obligatory on these undertakings to function on business principles, Parliament has obviously to take into account the implications of these principles and observe proper discretion in exercising control over them. Parliament, however, has got to be ever-watchful and vigilant in exercising the optimum amount of its control effectively.

Accountability of the Minister

A question that arises in connection with the accountability of autonomous public undertakings relates to the responsibility and the answerability of the Minister concerned to Parliament in regard to the activity pertaining to a particular undertaking. Certain powers are reserved to Government by Parliament in the statutes under which corporate enterprises are set up. These invariably include the power to appoint the governing body of the undertaking ; the power to sanction increase in capital, as also to limit borrowings ; the power to sanction expenditure for expansion schemes above a certain limit, etc. In certain cases, especially where the public is directly concerned, it has even been considered desirable for Government to control the price structure. Besides these specific powers, the Government is also invariably empowered to give directions to corporate enterprises. This power is evidently given to ensure that these autonomous enterprises do not function in a manner inconsistent with the governmental and national policies. Further, in actual practice it might not be possible for a Minister to confine himself to the limits of duties prescribed in the statutes. Thus, the Minister concerned has a fairly wide authority in controlling as well as in guiding the policies of the undertakings, and in ensuring, in an overall manner, their efficient functioning. In the last analysis, the Minister also has the power to change the Boards if he is not satisfied with them or their policies.

As early as 1948, Mr. Gaitskell, a member of the then Labour Government in U.K., declared that the Minister should accept responsibility for the general success or failure of the enterprise, and that Parliament, if dissatisfied, could call him to account for not appointing suitable Board members or for not issuing necessary directions to them. Thus, the answerability of the Minister in regard to the affairs of these autonomous undertakings could be quite extensive. However, while one would expect the Minister to keep himself well-posted, by suitable means, with all the important affairs of corporate state enterprises; in view of the autonomy allowed to these enterprises, it would not, however, be in order to hold the Minister responsible in regard to matters of detail or day-to-day administration. But Parliament would be justified to make the undertaking itself responsible for these matters. While the Minister concerned would still be

the link between the Parliament and the undertaking or even its spokesman, when necessary, there is need for a more direct relationship between Parliament and the undertakings. Suitable machinery would naturally have to be devised for this purpose.

Means of Ensuring Accountability

The direct accountability of autonomous state enterprises to Parliament can be strengthened by providing, in the relevant statutes, for the submission of the Annual Reports and Accounts directly to Parliament and also by insisting on the maintenance of accounts in a form to be prescribed in consultation with, and their audit by, an independent statutory authority like the Comptroller and Auditor-General as well as the submission of his audit report to Parliament direct. The Audit and the Annual Reports, if detailed and informative, as in the case of some of the nationalised industries in the United Kingdom, can be particularly helpful in ensuring proper accountability. The statutes setting up the enterprises may, as well, include additional safeguards, such as the appointment of consultative committees and advisory boards with non-official and experts as members.

Other media at the disposal of Parliament to ensure accountability are questions, debates on budget of the appropriate Ministry or Department and Parliamentary Committees. The right to ask the Minister concerned questions in regard to an undertaking might cover a wide field than that of the statutory responsibilities of the Minister; supplementary questions would naturally provide further opportunity to ask for detailed information. It would be desirable not to limit the right to ask for information in Parliament in regard to corporate state enterprises on the ground of their autonomy, since Parliament is entitled to have it. At least, the Minister should act as the link between the undertaking and Parliament in supplying the information it wants.

Debates concerning the activities of a Ministry or the undertaking, such as during budget discussion or during discussion on an amendment to the statute setting up an undertaking or an adjournment motion, etc., also provide a useful opportunity for Parliament to exercise control over public enterprises. Equally, and even perhaps more, important is the scrutiny of their working undertaken by the Public Accounts and Estimates Committees of Parliament. The Public Accounts Committee has been successfully examining their Annual Accounts and Audit Reports, laid before Parliament. The Estimates Committee in India, as in the U.K., has never confined its examination to a superficial and often fruitless examination of

estimates but has interpreted its terms of reference broadly to include a survey of governmental activities, past, present and future, which represent the real results of the estimates and expenditure. It examined the estimates and activities of the Damodar Valley Corporation as early as 1953-54. In later years it examined the work and activities of about 12 autonomous public undertakings including the Hindustan Shipyard, Hindustan Machine Tools, Bharat Electronics, Indian Airlines Corporation, Air-India International and Hindustan Aircraft ; it is at present examining the operations and working of the Indian Telephone Industries and Hindustan Steel Ltd. as also the Oil and Natural Gas Commission. As early as 1955 the Committee made an 'unorthodox' report on the organisation and management of public undertakings; the importance and usefulness of the major recommendations made therein has been amply proved by the developments during the last few years. While examining the undertakings mentioned above the Committee made no attempt to exclude any aspect of their working from its purview merely on considerations of their autonomy because their accountability to Parliament is absolute; nor did the Committee confine itself only to the published Annual Reports and Accounts. It asked for information that it considered relevant to its study; and in a majority of cases it received the information it asked for fairly promptly from the undertakings. The Committee's reports bear testimony to the thoroughness with which it examined the working of the undertakings, pointed out organisational, financial and operational defects wherever they were noticed and suggested improvements. It will be generally agreed that the Committee's approach has been helpful to Government and undertakings alike, being constructively critical.

Accountability in the U.K.

The control devices described above have also been available to Parliament in the United Kingdom where there are a number of nationalised industries. However, certain restrictions in regard to the matters to be raised in the House were observed, and also the Estimates Committee did not undertake an examination of an undertaking unless there was a grant or subsidy for the purpose in the governmental estimates of the undertaking. The Parliament in the United Kingdom was apparently not satisfied and there was a persistent demand for more information in regard to the undertakings as well as for better means to ensure accountability. The British Parliament, therefore, appointed a Select Committee to go into the matter. It examined a number of witnesses, including Members of Parliament, the Comptroller and Auditor-General and the Chairmen of the

Boards of the nationalised industries. After considerable deliberation, the Select Committee recommended that a Standing Committee of the House of Commons should be set up to examine the working of the nationalised industries with particular reference to their published reports and accounts and also by obtaining further information as to their general policy and practice. The Committee was also to report to Parliament from time to time with a view to keeping it continuously informed of the public policies and progress of activities of nationalised industries but not for purposes of controlling their work. A Select Committee, as recommended, was accordingly set up, though apparently not without misgivings. In the early stages the Committee had some doubts in regard to its terms of reference, especially in regard to matters other than that relating to ministerial responsibility. However, it has since examined two nationalised industries almost wholly with reference to their published annual accounts and reports and has submitted one report.

Comparison between U.K. and India

A proposal for the setting up of a Select Committee similar to the Select Committee on Nationalised Industries in the United Kingdom was mooted in Indian Parliament sometime in 1953 and 1956. During discussion the role and the work of the Estimates Committee in this connection was appreciatively referred to, and as a result, the proposal was not pressed. Eventually, the Speaker ordered that a Sub-Committee of the Estimates Committee might continuously examine the working of the undertakings in the public sector. The Committee made a beginning in this direction in 1957 and in course of time will naturally extend its activities to a larger number of undertakings. A comparison of the means at the disposal of Parliament to secure accountability of the autonomous public undertakings in India and in the U.K. will show that the two are almost on par. There has been considerable hesitation in both the countries in extending the scope and the extent of accountability on the ground that it will affect the administrative independence of the undertakings, which would, in turn impair their operational flexibility and efficiency. Here one important difference between the public undertakings in the U.K. and those in India deserves to be taken note of. Most of the nationalised undertakings in the U.K. consist of industries which existed in the private sector prior to nationalisation and were taken over as running concerns. Most of them are run with the administrators and executives belonging to those industries. On the other hand, in India, except for a few undertakings like the Air Corporations,

the State Bank and the Life Insurance Corporation, apart from the Railways in their early years, most of the other autonomous enterprises have been newly set up. There is a dearth of competent administrative and technical personnel with experience of industrial and financial management required for these undertakings. Further most of the corporate enterprises in India are also functioning on a monopolistic basis. It would not, therefore, be right to feel complacent in regard to the extent of accountability and control exercised in India merely by a comparison with the position in the U.K.; it might be worthwhile to examine also what means other democratic countries have adopted for the purpose.

Accountability in France

In France the public sector is fairly extensive. It includes certain mixed enterprises in which the government shareholding varies from 3% to 99%. Apart from the usual means of questions and debates, the French Parliament has developed certain special devices to ensure greater control over public enterprises. In the original statutes setting up the nationalised industries no machinery was provided for direct parliamentary supervision over such enterprises. This lacuna, however, was soon recognised and gradually removed. By far the most important device for this purpose is the setting up of a Sub-Committee of each of the Finance Committees of both Houses to follow and examine the functioning of the nationalised enterprises. Their major function is to make information available to the Finance Committee and to the French Parliament. They have submitted a few general reports but a number of special reports. They are reported to be working towards making parliamentary control of nationalised enterprises really effective. Again, in France, the budgets of undertakings requiring subsidies, grants, etc. from the State are required to be annexed to the main budget of the State and are approved by the Parliament along with the latter. These annexed budgets naturally include information about the investment programmes of the industries as well as their annual programmes of new works to be undertaken. The French Parliament also fixes the maximum annual expenditure on investment, whether to be financed through public sources or by the undertakings themselves. The Members of the French Parliament are further able to follow the progress of work and the methods of finance by means of two comprehensive reports, viz. the Economic Report and the Financial Report published annually as annexures to the Finance Bill. There is also an important juridical control exercised by an extra-Parliamentary supervisory body, namely,

the Public Undertakings Audit Board, the principal duty of which is to examine the accounts of all the undertakings in order to ensure uniformity in their maintenance and to audit them. A certain amount of administrative control is also exercised by a State Controller who reports to the Minister of Finance and Economic Affairs and submits his views on the detailed proposals and decisions of the enterprises. An eminent authority has observed that though the French Parliament has powerful means at its disposal for the control of public enterprises and though they investigate thoroughly any matter which has aroused public concern, there was little evidence to show that as a result the efficiency of public enterprises in France had suffered or their initiative of management has been impaired.*

The Position in U.S.A.

In the United States of America there are a number of government corporations set up as autonomous bodies under the Acts of Congress. No such corporation can be set up without congressional approval. The activities of these corporations are considered to be part of the executive activities of Government and the President has legal authority to give administrative and executive directions to the corporations. The Congress has power to investigate their activities and to receive information about them through its Committees. The Government Corporation Control Act, 1945, provides for a number of measures to ensure proper congressional control. One important requirement is that the corporation should submit annually business-type budget to the Congress through the Bureau of the Budget which has the power to review them. These budgets constitute a part of President's Budget and are subject to the usual process of review by Congressional Committees. The Congress, while approving the business-type budget in general terms, fixes a ceiling on the administrative expenses. In addition, accounts of the government corporations are subject to the audit of the Comptroller-General and the General Accounting Office, but it has also been prescribed that the audit is to be conducted on the lines of the audit conducted for commercial and industrial bodies. The Comptroller-General is also required to make independent reports on the Corporations to the Congress. These are naturally taken into account by the Congressional Committees while approving the budgets of the Corporations. Similar provisions in regard to audit exist in the case of mixed ownership enterprises where part of the funds have been provided by the State. The Congress in the U.S.A. has thus also made substantial

* F. Ridley: "Parliamentary Control of Public Enterprise in France" (*Parliamentary Affairs*, Summer '57)

provisions to ensure the accountability of the autonomous corporations and to exercise effective control over them.

Conclusion

The above survey of the position in regard to Legislature of the U.K., U.S.A. and France shows that they have adopted several important devices by which autonomous public undertakings, which form an integral part of the governmental activities, do not escape parliamentary control and accountability and that some of these are of a fairly radical type. If the initiative and efficiency of the public undertakings has as a result not been impaired in these countries, there is no reason why any fears should be entertained in ours. As observed earlier, Parliament in India, particularly its Estimates Committee, have in recent years come to exercise considerable control over state enterprises. The examination of their activities and working at five to six years' intervals by the Estimates Committee would undoubtedly go a long way in establishing effective parliamentary control over them. The Committee would also incidentally be an additional safeguard and a link in providing a healthy relationship between Parliament and the enterprise.

There are however, several directions in which the accountability of autonomous state enterprises can be improved. *First* of all, the Annual Reports and Accounts of these undertakings as also their Audit Reports should be far more detailed and exhaustive than at present, so that they may be self-contained documents on which discussions can usefully take place. Every activity of the undertaking—organisational, operational, productive, financial, personnel, etc.—should be described. The financial results of each activity should also be explained. Directions given by Ministers may be specifically mentioned. *Secondly*, there should be regular debates in the Parliament on state enterprises but at fairly long intervals. *Thirdly*, the enterprises may be required to prepare business-type budgets which might be annexed to the main Budget of the State and be approved in general terms along with the latter. In the *fourth* place, Consultative and Advisory Bodies and Consumer Councils should be established wherever possible and required to submit periodic reports to Parliament. A *fifth* improvement would be in the direction of setting up Efficiency Audit Units, more or less of a technical nature, to evaluate progress in technical spheres every five years or so, with powers to report directly to Parliament.

The importance of observing certain restraints, such as respecting operational flexibility and business principles, while exercising parliamentary control, has already been stressed. There can, however, be

no dogmatic approach in regard to the devices to be adopted to ensure accountability or the precautions to be observed in securing it. Ultimately, the form and extent of parliamentary control, if it is to be effective, has to be worked out individually for each public enterprise; it is difficult to evolve a pattern of control which will apply equally to all cases. But Parliament cannot afford to relax in its attempts to ensure the optimum accountability, consistent with efficiency, of state enterprises. With this end in view it would be worthwhile for Parliament to profit by the experiences of other countries and to continuously review and perfect the tools of control over public undertakings at its disposal.



RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Charles A. Myers

ONE of the principal bottlenecks to rapid economic development is the persistent shortage of high-level human resources. These include government planning and administrative officials; engineers, scientists and technicians, and, equally important but not always recognized, managerial personnel for both private and public enterprises. Successful industrialization, in fact, depends as much on competent managers at all levels of an enterprise as it does on capital resources. Modern technology can be imported by a developing country until its own industry can supply its needs for capital equipment. But the importation of technical and managerial skills is only a stop-gap solution. Industrialization requires the investment of resources by a country in training its own high-level manpower as well as in the building of dams, roads, steel mills, heavy machinery plants, and other accoutrements of modern industrialization.

If these propositions are valid, as I believe they are, then recent developments in management training in India are encouraging evidence of India's determination to meet this need for high-level managerial resources. The impressions reported in this article grow out of a month's visit to seven industrial centres during January and February, 1958, in connection with a separate assignment for the Ford Foundation. They are evaluated against the background of a five-year research study of management and labour in India's industrialization effort, begun in 1952 and recently completed.* The striking thing to me was the change I observed between 1954-55, when I spent over five months in various Indian industrial centers, and this past January and February when I re-visited many of these same centers. There is greatly increased activity in the management training field, and what is more important, there is more widespread recognition of the importance of this activity for the success of India's development plans. Perhaps this recogni-

* Charles A. Myers, *Industrial Relations in India*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1958. (Also published as *Labor Problems in the Industrialization of India*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1958). See particularly Ch. 6, "The Managerial Response". This study is part of a larger Inter-University Study of Labour Problems in Economic Development, covering a number of countries and involving faculty members of the Universities of California, Chicago, Harvard, Princeton and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, financed in large part by a research grant from the Ford Foundation, U.S.A.

tion has not yet reached the highest quarters in Indian industry—private or public—but the interest is growing.

A SURVEY OF CURRENT PROGRAMMES

The following programmes for management training and development in India are among the most important which have come to my attention. They are not necessarily listed in order of importance, and the comments on each are intended to be impressionistic rather than definitive.

1. Post-graduate Management Training Programmes at Seven Universities and Technical Institutes. This programme grew out of the recommendations of the Board of Management Studies of the All-India Council for Technical Education, under the direction of the Ministry of Education. The initial proposal was for courses in Business Management at the schools or departments of economics at Delhi University, University of Bombay, University of Madras, and the All-India Institute of Social Welfare and Business Management (affiliated with the University of Calcutta); and for courses in Industrial Administration at the Indian Institute of Technology (Kharagpur), the Indian Institute of Science (Bangalore), and the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute (Bombay). Some of these programmes got underway in August, 1955, but subsequently the Courses Committee of the All-India Board of Technical Studies in Management rightly decided that the distinction between *industrial* administration and *business* management was largely a false one, and that the programmes at the seven institutions should emphasize the principles, practices, tools and techniques of management which are common to all enterprises, whether business or industrial, public or private. A separate course in industrial engineering, emphasizing such aspects of industrial management as production engineering, work study, etc. is provided, and properly centred at the institutes of technology.

Most of these post-graduate management training programmes cover three years of part-time evening work, and are confined to junior managerial personnel now employed in industrial and business establishments. These are the men and women who can benefit most readily by this training, and can apply what they learn immediately to their own work—provided it is realistic and related to their own problems. Here the most important need is to expand and strengthen the teaching staff, not only by adding to the full-time staff, but by drawing mature people from industry who can share their experience with younger management trainees in these programmes. Some

institutions have been able to do a better job than others, and some have begun to collect case materials from Indian industry to enrich the teaching programme. But the relation between the empirical research on business and industrial problems and the quality of the teaching is not fully appreciated, largely because of lack of staff, time and funds for this type of field research. Some steps are being taken to remedy this situation, but much remains to be done.

2. The Administrative Staff College of India at Hyderabad. This opened in September 1957 with thirty middle and senior management and administrative officers sent by their organizations for the first three-month residential study programme. The recommendation for the establishment of the College, patterned after the Administrative Staff College in England, was made in June 1953 by an expert committee appointed by the All-India Council for Technical Education; and a Planning Committee, headed by Mr. T.T. Krishnamachari, then Minister for Commerce and Industry, prepared the detailed plans. The booklet on the College, published in February 1957, succinctly states the importance of training high-level human resources in its discussion of "Objects and Aims of the Staff College" :

"As industrial and commercial enterprises as well as the activities of the Government become increasingly wide-spread and complex, the administrators in charge are required to show a capacity 'to hold in mind a total and perhaps distant situation, to plan ahead imaginatively and firmly and yet with the necessary margins, to assemble in the right relations, and at the right time, diverse material and human resources, to take consistent decisions on points of detail and in turn to see that their junior executives in their several spheres know how to do the same.' In short, every large enterprise calls for the constructive skill and technique of leadership, policy making and planning which are not simply gifts of nature. Training is necessary."

"There are certain fundamental principles of organization and administration which are common to quite different types of activity. These principles can and should be taught. Instead, they are at present laboriously and inadequately acquired by individuals by a process of trial and error. Far better results can be obtained if these principles are taught to those who possess some relevant experience and are fitted for higher administrative posts."

In line with these aims, the College uses the "syndicate method" of training developed successfully at the Administrative Staff College in England. This differs from the "case method" developed and widely popularized by the Harvard Business School, and from other management training methods in use at other American universities. But my own view, after participating in some of the syndicate sessions in Hyderabad and elsewhere, is that this approach is ingenious, thought-provoking, and helps develop the kind of skills and insights described above. The case method may be equally useful, as are other methods, but it is a mistake to consider any *one* management training approach or technique as the only road to success—as sometimes the over-enthusiastic proponents of the case method tend to do. The same danger needs to be guarded against in the syndicate method, and I believe the Administrative Staff College at Hyderabad is well aware of this.

As this is written, the first group at Hyderabad has completed the programme, and a new larger group nominated by their enterprises and government departments will begin the second session. Eventually, three groups of sixty will constitute the year-round programme of the College. The composition of the first group represented a cross-section of the administrative and managerial talent of India, as the following tabulation indicates :

Central government ministries and agencies	7
State government departments	3
Public corporations and enterprises	6
Private enterprises	14

Some were managing directors and general managers; others were sales managers or officials, secretaries, staff officers, deputy commissioners, superintendents, branch managers or engineers. As in most similar groups, the learning process benefited as much from the exchange of experience and insights as it did from the formal content of the programme. This College, with its beautiful quarters at Bella Vista in Hyderabad, is at present the only high-level residential management training programme in India, and it deserves the full support of business firms, public enterprises and Government.

3. Advanced Management Course, Calcutta. This is held at the All-India Institute of Social Welfare and Business Management, and it was organized by a group of top managers from fourteen European and American firms in Calcutta, with advice from Col. L. Urwick, the well-known British management consultant, who visited India under the auspices of the Colombo Plan in the winter of 1956. The

course is conducted by the syndicate method, under the general guidance of an executive of an American firm, and is aimed at men who have been a minimum of 5-8 years in business and who are at least 30 years of age. The first group, which concluded the three-month part-time programme of Fridays and Saturday morning in January 1958, included mostly Indian middle management officers and a few European personnel of the companies having international connections. This programme impressed me as valuable to the participants with whom I talked, and it should be continued.

4. Indian Management Association, and Local Affiliates. The establishment of the Indian Management Association, with headquarters in New Delhi, in 1956, was the culmination of a long effort by various local management groups to give greater standing and recognition to the profession of management. Among the earlier active local management associations in 1954-55 were the those in Bombay, Delhi and Bangalore. In June 1957, the Indian Management Association sent its first delegation to the International Management Congress in Paris, and India is now a full-fledged member of this international body.

To date, the All-India Management Association has neither the staff nor the facilities to undertake a programme of management seminars and conferences similar to those conducted by the American Management Association or the British Institute of Management, for example. But the local groups, particularly in Bombay, have developed an active year-round programme of meetings, seminars and residential study courses. I participated in the Bombay Management Association's Residential Study Course in Poona in February 1958, and was favourably impressed with the quality of the thirty-seven middle and senior management officials, almost all from private enterprises, who participated in the week-long programme. Lectures, seminars and study groups were used effectively. The Bombay Management Association's programmes could well serve as a model for other management groups in India.

5. Training Within Industry (T.W.I.) Programme of Supervisory Training. This began in 1953 with T.W.I. specialists provided to the Ministry of Labour by the International Labour Organization. The first programme was in Ahmedabad, where a number of mills affiliated with the Ahmedabad Textile Industry's Research Association (A.T.I.R.A.) co-operated in designating Training Officers who would be trained to conduct T.W.I. courses (Job Instructor Training, Job Methods Training, and most important, Job Relations Training) among the supervisors in their own mills. The success of

the programme depended on the extent to which the top management of each mill really supported the idea of supervisory training, and seriously provided follow-up and implementation. Subsequently, the T.W.I. programme was extended, through a T.W.I. Centre established under the direction of the Chief Adviser for Factories, Ministry of Labour, to a number of other industrial centres. Some 69 Training Officers from 55 industrial enterprises, both private and public, and from Government departments were trained to conduct T.W.I. programmes in their own organization.*

Altogether, the T.W.I. programme has been one of the more effective technical assistance programmes of the I.L.O.; although the I.L.O. Productivity Missions, tied in with the Productivity Centre established by the Ministry of Labour, also conducted some management training programmes in various centres. Whether these programmes will be as effective and as influential as they have been in the past is in some doubt, partly because of the departure of some of the key personnel and apparent lack of support for the expansion of these activities. Perhaps the new National Productivity Council, with regional councils, under the direction of the Ministry of Commerce, will fill the gap, but the relations between these bodies and the National Productivity Centre in the Central Labour Institute first sponsored by the Ministry of Labour is not entirely clear.

6. Other Special and Functional Training Programmes. In addition to the above, there are a growing number of other management training programmes which deserve mention. Outstanding among these is the annual Management Conference held each year since 1955 by the Ahmedabad Textile Industry's Research Association. This is a remarkable and impressive organization, which has its own separate Human Relations Division doing research and consulting work in management and labour problems. The fourth Management Conference on February 7-9, 1958, attracted nearly 600 management people from several industrial centres in addition to Ahmedabad, and provided an opportunity for discussion of such topics as wages and wage systems, worker participation in management, organization and control problems of management, social implications of technical change, and reports of field study teams of young executives on particular managerial problems. In addition, A.T.I.R.A. has also sponsored separate management training programmes, using the case method and field trips.

* For further discussion of the TWI programme, see *Development of Supervisory Training in India*, T.W.I. Centre, Ministry of Labour, Government of India, Bombay, 1957.

Another excellent programme for Works Managers and other managerial officials was conducted on a residential basis for several weeks each in 1954 and 1955 at the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur. In February, 1958, the residential course was centred on "Management for Higher Productivity." I.I.T. also inaugurated, in 1954-55, the first full-time post-graduate industrial management course in India, with a small group of students from government and private enterprises.

Several management consulting firms, particularly in the Bombay area, have offered part-time and residential management courses and seminars. Among these were the "refresher course" in management organized by Associated Industrial Services, the residential hill-station programme by the Modern Management Council, Bombay, and the "Top Management Programme in Managerial Performance" offered in Bombay between February 17 and March 8 by Personnel and Productivity Services. The field of management consultancy is new in India, particularly in this aspect of managerial structure and development, but the process of industrial growth will increasingly require the kind of service that competent management consultants can give. The danger is, of course, that quacks and charltans, who promise much but perform little, will give the profession of management consultancy a bad name.

The growing interest in staff colleges and training centres run by some of the larger firms for their own managerial development also deserves mention. Among these are the Tata Staff College in Poona, which grew out of two previous Tata Managers' Conferences covering all Tata enterprises; the Basics of Supervision and Conference Leadership programme run by Standard-Vacuum Oil Company and the Burmah-Shell staff training centre at Juhu in Bombay and a number of others.

Finally, in one of the important functional areas of management—personnel management—the Indian Institute of Personnel Management has organized through its branches a number of regional conferences on special problems, such as discipline in industry, in addition to the annual conference which draws a large number of personnel and labour welfare officers from all over India. The 8th Annual Conference was held in New Delhi on February 7-9, 1958 with the theme : "Industrial Relations in the Public and Private Sectors". Discussions were centred on (1) ways and means of developing direct negotiation, joint consultation and co-operation in industry, and (2) problems of discipline and grievance procedure. The currently-lively topic of "Worker Participation in Management" was also the

subject of a special tri-partite conference called by the Ministry of Labour in New Delhi on January 31-February 1. To the extent that the Seminar resulted in an exchange of experiences, it was a form of "management education" for both the management and labour representatives present.

Training programmes for labour welfare officers have been offered for some years at such institutions as the Tata Institute of Social Science in Bombay, the All-India Institute for Social Welfare and Business Management in Calcutta, the Delhi School of Social Work at the University of Delhi, and the Xavier Labour Relations Institute, Jamshedpur. In fact, the Factories Act requires that labour officers be employed by firms with 500 or more employees, and that they be graduates of approved courses. This requirement is almost unique to India, and, while the legislation may have given a boost to the employment of labour officers, it is not so certain that their acceptance by and usefulness to management is thereby increased.* Some of the institutes have made a real effort to improve the quality and content of their instruction, and some have plans to undertake research which would help relate teaching content to current problems. As in the broader management training programmes, the interrelation of teaching and research needs further development.

7. Training of Government Administrators. In addition to the Administrative Staff College, training in administration will be provided in a new programme to be inaugurated in October 1958, by the Indian School of Public Administration which is being organized under the auspices of the Indian Institute of Public Administration. Unlike the Staff College, which takes only presently-employed government officials, the new School will also provide a two-year full-time residential post-graduate course for those who intend to enter the public services, teaching, or public life, and about 50 students will be accepted for each course. Some short-term courses for those already employed are also projected.

In the field of in-service training, the trend is towards broad-basing the training programmes, bringing back the trainees to the training schools for a short period after they have completed field work forming a part of their institutional training, and the organisation of refresher courses. Refresher courses for officers directly recruited to the Indian Administrative Service with 6 to 10 years' experience, and those promoted to the I.A.S. from the State Services, is now a regular feature of the training activities of the Union Ministry of Home Affairs.

* For further discussion, see Myers, *Industrial Relations in India*, Chapter 7.

Similar courses for state administrative officers are also being organised in some States. The Indian Institute of Public Administration held last year a refresher course in Public Personnel Management for the benefit of junior personnel officers of Central Ministries, and proposes to intensify its activities in this sphere. The Central Government has recently decided to set up a National Academy of Administration for training of civil servants. The Academy will provide (1) a common background and foundational course for direct recruits to the all-India and the Class I Central (non-technical) Services, (2) a course of professional training to direct recruits to the I.A.S., (3) the refresher course which is at present being provided at the I.A.S. Staff College at Simla, and (4) short courses and seminars for the benefit of senior officers. The object of the common background and foundational courses would be to develop in the trainees an understanding of the constitutional, economic, social and administrative framework within which they would have to function, as well as to develop among recruits to different services a feeling of belonging to a common public service and a broadly common outlook. In due course, the separate training programmes for the various services also may be concentrated in this National Academy of Administration.

WHAT REMAINS TO BE DONE

This summary of management training and development programmes indicates the growing interest in professional management in India, and it is an impressive record by any standards. These programmes show that the Government of India and many private enterprises are aware of the need for developing the skills and vision of supervisors, junior managers, middle managers and even some senior managers. Some programmes are better than others, as the earlier comments in the survey of existing programme indicate. Furthermore, these programmes do not yet reach the very top echelon of managerial responsibility in Indian industry, or in the autonomous public corporations. The philosophy and practices of some top management people in India, particularly the more speculative type of managing agents, are hardly adequate for rapid industrialization in a democratic society in the twentieth century. Furthermore, the special skills and competence of *industrial* management are not yet widely understood in some of the public enterprises. Three years ago there was much talk about the establishment of an Indian Management Service, to which persons with experience or training in industrial management might be recruited for assignment to managerial positions in public enterprises. So far as I could learn, this Service

has not yet been established, on an active basis.* Perhaps a special in-service training programme for these recruits should be established, but they would also benefit from attendance at one of the post graduate business or industrial management training programmes at one of the seven universities mentioned earlier. More senior candidates should certainly attend the Administrative Staff College, as central and state government officials did in the first session in 1957-58.

Further residential post-graduate managerial training and development programmes may be needed. One step in this direction is the proposed Institute of Management Studies, at the University of Bombay, which would provide a two-year full-time residential management course similar to that at the Harvard Business School, the School of Industrial Management at M.I.T., and at a number of other American universities. This would meet a need not now adequately filled by the M. Com. degrees offered at a number of Indian universities.

An equally important need, and perhaps more important, is for high-level management seminars of three to five weeks duration to which top management people might come for an exchange of the best managerial experience. Top management seminars of this sort have been run in the U.S., in many European countries, in Chile, in Japan, and more recently in an "Advanced Management Programme in the Far East," held at Baguio in the Philippines. Three senior management officials from Indian industry attended this programme last summer, and perhaps more will go this summer. But the time is rapidly approaching when such seminars may well be held in India, to reach a wider group in management and to supplement the existing and projected programmes. More management study tours—Indian managers visiting their counterparts in other countries, and managers from the more advanced industrial countries meeting with groups of Indian managers along the lines suggested by the U.S. Technical Co-operation Mission to India and by other groups—are also needed.

All of these suggested programmes, together with the existing efforts which have been outlined above, would help to strengthen and develop one of India's most critically-needed resources: the high-level human resources which are required to direct and administer the growing private and public enterprises, and government agencies, on which much of the success of Indian industrialization depends. The review and co-ordination of all of these programmes by the Manpower Directorate of the Home Ministry in co-operation with

* Recruitment to this service, known as the Industrial Management Pool, is being made at present.

the Planning Commission, is an important part of over-all manpower planning.

Will the present and proposed programmes for management training and development in India be adequate for the kind of socialist pattern of democratic society toward which India's planning efforts are directed ? Since the best programmes emphasize the necessity for management to consider the dignity and worth of the individual human being at work, the importance of joint consultation and of human relations at the plant level, they should strengthen—rather than conflict with—the democratic values in Indian society. Professional management training, emphasizing a democratic philosophy, is basically opposed to totalitarian or autocratic methods of dealing with subordinates. The rising expectations of Indian workers demand a different managerial philosophy, and management training programmes can help to develop this awareness in a new generation of managers.



THE PROBLEM OF ADMINISTRATIVE TRIBUNALS*

N. K. Bhojwani

WHILE a high degree of efficiency in public administration is certainly to be desired, the ultimate test of a really effective and enduring administration in a democracy is the quality of its relations with the people. Are such relations based on a reasonable degree of mutual trust and co-operation? Is the sense of community of interest between the administration and the citizen sufficiently developed? Does the citizen tend to obstruct and defeat the administrative process for want of confidence in its capacity to do justice? Does the administrative machinery tend to 'do the citizen down' through excessive executive-mindedness or in an arbitrary manner? Should certain kinds of administrative action be normally subject to independent review outside the judicial review of courts of law? These questions merit consideration. Few will claim that the position in respect of them at present is very encouraging. It is, therefore, proposed to examine here the role which administrative tribunals can play in promoting fair and equitable standards of administration and contributing thereby to greater administrative efficiency and integrity and greater satisfaction to the citizen. The importance of the subject arises from the continually growing powers of the executive government in its efforts to build up a welfare state.

Every year hundreds of laws are passed by Parliament and State legislatures. Their quantity and variety in recent years and their significance for the political, social, economic and moral life of the nation have been of an order not known before. This is a natural consequence of the directive principles of State policy as set out in our Constitution and for implementing which the national and state legislatures have applied their energies with a missionary zeal. All such legislation shows that we are committed to big government, vested with powers of massive intervention in every department and at all levels of national life. These powers have been willingly conceded by the people through their elected representatives in the belief that they were necessary for the success of a welfare state.

There are, however, certain aspects of the growing powers of Government which do not seem to have received the attention they deserve. Even a democratic government in the exercise of its powers for general welfare, is bound to find itself coming into frequent conflict

*Text of an essay (slightly condensed by the author) which won one of the two second prizes in the IIPA Essay Prize Competition 1957. No first prize was awarded.

with individual citizens or group interests. The volume of litigation involving the Central and State Governments has already caused a great deal of concern. While an authoritative estimate of such involvement is unfortunately not available, law reports seem to suggest that the lawsuit method of challenging administrative decisions has become a rather striking feature of the relations subsisting between the citizen and the administration.¹

Secondly, almost every law the administration of which depends upon the executive government empowers it to supplement it with rules of its own having the force of law. This process of subordinate legislation is an important constituent of what is known as administrative law. It is suggested that administrative law in this country has grown tremendously through the laws of the legislatures no less than through the process of subordinate legislation, without an adequate assessment of its implications and problems.

Thirdly, there is an increasing trend towards constituting government departments, with parliamentary approval, into adjudicators of disputes between them and the citizens. The implications of this trend also do not seem to have been properly investigated.

These aspects of the growing powers of modern administrative agencies raise important issues of adjusting the administrative processes simultaneously to the demands of social justice on the one hand and justice to the individual citizen on the other.

II

Our thinking on problems of public administration since independence has somehow paid little attention to these issues. All the studies made so far have concerned themselves largely with questions of administrative and organisational reforms necessary for toning up the efficiency and integrity of the administration, methods of recruitment, training, placement, promotions and allied matters.²

1. Till recently even the Ministry of Law had no information about the number of cases in which the *Central* government was involved. On 14th August, 1957, in reply to starred question No. 107 by V.K. Dhage in Rajya Sabha asking for this information, the Minister of Law said that the information was not readily available. An *interim* statement laid on the table in Rajya Sabha on 23rd December, 1957 gave the number of cases for some departments; Ministry of Home Affairs 141; Railways 25,140; Irrigation & Power 12; Health 142; Department of Economic Affairs 60. The number of income-tax cases pending in courts, according to information unofficially obtained, was 2677.

2. The principal studies are—(i) Report on the Reorganisation of the Machinery of Government by the late Shri N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar (then Minister of Transport) 1949; (ii) Reports of Mr. Paul Appleby (i) Public Administration in India: Report of a survey, 1953 and (ii) Re-examination of India's administrative system, with special reference to administration of government's industrial and commercial enterprises, 1956; (iii) Reports of the Planning Commission (Chapters 5 & 6—First Five Year Plan, 1952, and Chapter 6—Second Five Year Plan, 1956); (iv) The Second (1951) and the Ninth (1954) Reports of the Estimates Committee of Lok Sabha.

Parliament's and the Central Government's awareness of the value of carrying on the administration with as much consultation with the people as possible and with the maximum possible understanding and co-operation on their part is also reflected in the large number of advisory bodies that have been set up under various laws and otherwise. But hardly any attention has been paid to the question of ensuring that the *administrative process is intrinsically equitable* and that the methods of resolving disputes between the organs of public administration and the citizen, without forcing the latter to seek judicial redress, are adequate.

There have been occasions, however, when questions of fairness in administration have received a certain amount of notice. In its third report, the Committee on Estimates, for instance, recommended the appointment of a committee by the then Ministry of Commerce consisting of a person not below the rank of a District Judge and two other non-officials to deal with complaints against the working of the import and export control licensing system. "It is not our intention that this committee should act as a judicial body in a judicial manner but the inclusion of a District Judge has been suggested for the purpose of infusing confidence in the public mind that there is a person on the committee who does not belong to the Ministry and has a judicial temperament. . . . We do not think that (the present) rough and ready method of disposal of complaints will infuse confidence in the minds of the public and rid the department of charges of nepotism and corruption."³

This recommendation was not accepted by the Ministry, whose reaction was : "The procedure for dealing with complaints has been tightened up and improved. . . . All complaints are personally scrutinised by the Secretary or Joint Secretary and most of them by the Honourable Minister or the Deputy Minister. . . . It is considered that at this stage, it is neither necessary nor practical, . . . to appoint any special tribunal to examine complaints." This was accepted by the Committee and the matter treated as closed.⁴

The Committee on Subordinate Legislation, on the other hand, has kept strictly within its terms of reference. It has scrutinised the rules made by governmental agencies to ensure that they were properly made for the purposes and within the intents of the parent laws. No attempt has been made to examine the possibility of wrongful exercise of administrative powers through the rule-making power.

3. 3rd Report (1951), paras 23 and 41.

4. 37th Report (1956), p. 28.

The Committee has, however, been particularly watchful of tendencies to oust the jurisdiction of courts by the Government through rules and has stood, without success so far, for prior approval of Parliament of the rules authorised to be made.

In the first report of the Committee, presented to second Lok Sabha on 12th September, 1957, however, there is an interesting recommendation which may mark the beginning of a new approach by it to the exercise of administrative powers. The Calcutta Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Scheme, made under the Act of the same title, gives to the Dock Labour Board discretionary powers to dissolve a group of registered employers formed under the Scheme if it is satisfied that employers have failed to comply with the conditions prescribed for the formation of such groups. The Committee has recommended that as the dissolution of a group may affect the employers financially and there was no right of appeal against the orders of the Board, an opportunity of being heard should be given to the aggrieved employers. The Committee has not accepted the view of the Ministry of Labour and Employment that as the Board included representatives of employers they would have ample opportunity to put their views before it when a proposal for the dissolution of a group was considered by it. It is interesting to note that the Committee has not suggested that this provision in the Scheme went beyond the purposes or intents of the Act. Nor has it suggested where the opportunity of being heard should be provided. But the case is interesting for its obvious implication, viz. the need of safeguards against possible injustice arising through the exercise of perfectly legitimate administrative powers.

III

Such vigilance by Parliamentary Committees will also be logical because the source of all administrative power is administrative law as passed by Parliament and State Legislatures. Administrative law as considered here is the complex of laws the application and administration of which depend upon the action of the administrative organs of the government or 'the field of law whose control is exercised by law-administering agencies other than courts.'⁵

So understood it is obvious that a good proportion of recent and current legislation has consisted of laws the enforcement of which is wholly dependent on some kind of *administrative* action and which will remain dormant without such action.

5. Felix Frankfurter quoted in *Administrative Law* by R. Parker (p. 3).

It will be useful to recognise at this stage the principal constituents of administrative power. The first and the most important is the law as made by the legislature. Thus the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, vested the Central Government with extensive powers of control over certain specified industries. The administration of the Act is a matter entirely for an administrative agency (the Ministry of Commerce and Industry). If the agency chooses not to put an Act or any part of it into effect, it remains to that extent dormant. Another constituent is the rules made by administrative agencies of the government for carrying out the purposes of laws as made by legislatures. In most cases, laws cannot be set into motion without making rules.

Thus section 30 of the Act mentioned above empowers the Government to make rules for carrying out its purposes. Since the rules are made under the authority of a law, they have, by implication, the same status as the parent Act. A certain amount of quasi-legislative power thereby gets vested in the Executive. A further constituent of administrative power is rather special. It consists in the *finality* which is *sometimes* given by law to certain *specified* administrative decisions. This implies an ouster of the jurisdiction of courts in respect of such decisions. Thus Section 23 of the Act mentioned above lends *finality* to the decisions of the Central Government on such questions as whether an industrial undertaking is manufacturing or producing any new article or whether there has been a substantial expansion of an undertaking. It follows that in the event of a dispute, the power to judge the issue will vest with the Government itself. In this sense a certain amount of quasi-judicial power also characterises administrative functions.

There is finally the impact of administrative discretion and policy on administrative decisions. An undefined degree of discretion has generally to be allowed to administrative authorities and is frequently exercised by them. While decisions tend to establish precedents, the force of precedent in administrative processes is liable to be modified by considerations of public policy and circumstances rather more often than in judicial processes.

IV

It is an old platitude that administrative power is properly exercised only when laws are applied and decisions taken by ministers and civil servants with a sense of justice. But with the best of intentions, the possibility of improper exercise of power is bound to grow with every addition to it. The content of administrative power noted above

is in any case such as to provide scope for a variable quality of justice being done. This result is further assisted by the nature of the administrative process through which decisions are taken. Normally, administrative processes leading to decisions are secret and anonymous (in respect of persons making decisions and the levels at which they are made). They generally have the virtue of brevity in the sense that the reasons for which a decision adverse to a citizen is taken are not stated except for an occasional and not very helpful reference to a rule or some other consideration. They are also frequently taken without hearing the parties concerned. Lastly, it is not uncommon to treat decisions taken in the first instance or reviews of them on representation by the same authority, as final.

These are traditional characteristics of the administrative process and we have generally preserved them as a legacy from the past. The constitutional and political adjustments of relations between the authority of the state and the people, which have taken place from time to time and particularly since Independence have had no significant counterpart in the sphere of relations arising from the exercise of administrative authority. The fundamental principle of adjustment could be stated to be that administrative authority should not only be efficient in the exercise of its powers but that "it must also satisfy the general body of citizens that it is proceeding with reasonable regard to the balance between the public interest which it promotes and the private interest which it disturbs."⁶

It will not be correct to say that we are wholly unconscious of this basic principle of good and just administration. Indeed we have provided in many cases special methods of review of administrative decisions and of adjudication of disputes between administrative authorities and citizens. But the principles and procedures are so diverse as to suggest that our approach is still wholly *ad hoc* and unsystematic. Also to the extent that adjudication has been provided, it has tended to be treated in some cases as a convenient alternative to the courts of law and in most cases as an extension of or ancillary to the administrative process.

A few examples selected at random will illustrate the variety of procedures of review and adjudication in operation.

(i) Review by Law Court :

The Coconut Committee Act 1944, and the Oilseeds Committee Act 1946, provide for an appeal to the District Judge or the Chief Judge

6. *Report of the Committee on Administrative Tribunals and Enquiries* (Chairman: Sir Oliver Franks), Cmd. 218, H.M.S.O. London, 1957.

of the Small Cause Court, by any occupier of a mill who feels aggrieved by an assessment of cess made by the Collector appointed by the Government. The Acts make the orders of the judge final in respect of any modification or cancellation of the assessment or order of refund of any amount paid under it.

(ii) Review by the Government :

But the Indian Cotton Cess Act 1923 provides that an assessment of cess made by the Collector appointed by Government shall not be questioned in any court of law. It, however, allows any owner of a mill who is aggrieved by an assessment to appeal to the Central Government for the cancellation or modification of the assessment or refund of any amount paid under it.

The Central Silk Board Act 1948, under which a cess is levied on certain kinds of silk, provides neither for an appeal nor does it specifically shut out the jurisdiction of the courts.

On the other hand, while Section 14(4) of the Tea Act 1953 provides that no order of the Tea Board on an application for permission to plant tea on any land not planted with tea at the commencement of the Act shall be called in question in any court, Section 32 allows an appeal to the Central government by any person aggrieved by an order of the Board in respect of certain *other* matters dealing with planting of tea and export quotas.

(iii) Review through Arbitration :

The Indian Telegraphs (Amendment) Act 1957 makes a provision for arbitration for the settlement of disputes that may arise between the Government and telephone subscribers. All disputes are to be referred "to an *arbitrator appointed by the Central Government*" and his award is to be conclusive and 'shall not be questioned in any court.'

(iv) Review by an Appellate Board :

The Foreign Exchange Regulations (Amendment) Act 1957 empowers the Director of Enforcement of Foreign Exchange Regulations appointed by the *Central Government* to adjudge whether any person has committed a contravention of regulations and to impose penalties. A reasonable opportunity of being heard is provided. The Director is also empowered to summon and enforce the attendance of any person to give evidence or to produce a document or any other thing which he may consider useful for or relevant to his inquiry.

Appeals against the orders of the Director lie to the Foreign Exchange Regulation Appellate Board consisting of a Chairman and another member to be appointed by the Central Government. The Act makes the decision of the Appellate Board final. The Government is also empowered to prescribe the manner in which inquiries should be held and the procedure to be followed in respect of the proceedings before the Director or the Appellate Board.

(v) Mixed Procedures under a State Land Acquisition Act :

Under the Orissa Development of Industries, Irrigation, Agriculture, Capital Construction and Resettlement of Displaced Persons (Land Acquisition) Act 1948, any land for the acquisition of which notice has been served or published vests absolutely in the Government free from all encumbrances from the date of notice. The occupier is permitted to file an objection with the Government within one month of notice. Decision on it lies wholly with the Government. *Compensation* for the land, crops, trees and other assets is, however, required to be determined by agreement and in the absence of an agreement by an arbitrator to be appointed by the *Government*. The person to be compensated is permitted to nominate an assessor only when the *Government* nominates one on its own behalf to assist the arbitrator. An appeal lies to the High Court from the award of the arbitrator. The Act makes the decision of the High Court final.

(vi) Control of Private Schools without Adjudication :

The Kerala Education Bill 1957⁷, as passed by the State Legislature vests administrative decisions on numerous matters affecting private schools, whether aided or not, in the District Educational Officers and provides for appeals only to the *State Government* whose decision is to be final. All such decisions have been placed outside the scope of the State Education Advisory Board authorised to be set up by the Act for certain other purposes.

V

We may now refer to the part played by administrative tribunals. The device of the administrative tribunal as a *standing* machinery of adjudication is of recent origin and has been used in certain limited and special fields of administration, such as railway rates (The Railway Rates Tribunal); income-tax (The Income-tax Appellate Tribunal);

7. As this Bill has not yet received the assent of the President of India, it has not come into force.

industrial relations (Labour Courts, Industrial Tribunals, National Tribunals and Wage Boards) and election disputes (Election Tribunals). Occasionally tribunals are set up for *ad hoc* purposes. Thus the Life Insurance Corporation Act, 1956, authorised the Central Government to establish one or more tribunals to determine the compensation to be paid to insurance companies for the business taken over by the Corporation. The *ad hoc* committee set up to determine the compensation to be paid by the Government of Mysore to gold mining companies on nationalisation is also an instance of an *ad hoc* tribunal. The disputes dealt with by the labour and election tribunals do not generally involve any administrative authority. But they fall in the category of administrative tribunals inasmuch as they are created by legislation and used by the administrative departments concerned for the settlement of disputes involving public interest and in which the government usually takes the position of interested neutrality. In a welfare state, both types of tribunals are important.

It is not the purpose of this paper nor is it possible within its compass to examine the procedures and working of these tribunals. They are generally, special bodies established by the Legislature and independent of the ordinary administrative machinery of the Government in varying degrees, to examine and determine specific issues or adjudicate in a judicial spirit on certain grievances against or disputes arising from administrative decisions. Though not courts of law, they are intended to assure fair decisions on matters affecting the rights of citizens and sometimes function as appellate bodies when any administrative decisions are challenged.

Thus the Income-tax Appellate Tribunal is a highly 'judicialised' tribunal for hearing appeals from the orders of the Appellate Assistant Commissioners of Income-tax who are the first appellate authorities for appeals from the orders of Income-tax officers. It is judicialised in the sense that its procedures provide for open hearings, representation by counsel and statements of reasons for decisions. It has the same powers as are vested in a court under the Code of Civil Procedure in the matter of discovery and inspection, enforcing attendance, examining on oath, compelling production of books of accounts and other documents and local investigation. It is the final court of appeal and its orders are binding on the Government and can be appealed against both by the government and assessee on a question of law only, first in the High Court and from there in the Supreme Court. The Chairman of the Tribunal and members of its various benches are appointed by the Ministry of Law on the advice of the Union Public Service Commission. The Tribunal is thereby made independent of

the Central Board of Revenue which is responsible for collecting income-tax. Though the Appellate Assistant Commissioners and Income-tax officers also have the same powers of a court as are vested in the Tribunal, they are officers of the Income-tax Department. The procedure of adjudication in income-tax matters is, consequently, a mixed procedure in the sense that while the first appeal lies to a civil servant, the second and final appeal lies to the Tribunal.

The Railway Rates Tribunal is a relatively minor tribunal for adjudicating on certain matters of railway freight rates.⁸ It was recently reorganised under the Indian Railways (Amendment) Act, passed by Parliament in December 1957, to make it less formal, less legalistic, less costly to the litigants and more expeditious.⁹ It is interesting to note the changes made : (1) The Chairman and two members of the Tribunal are to be appointed by the Central Government as before. But while formerly no qualifications were prescribed for the President (as he was known before) of the Tribunal, the Chairman hereafter has to be a person who is or has been a judge of the Supreme Court or of a High Court. (2) Formerly, a member of the Tribunal had to be a person who was or had been or was qualified for appointment as a judge of the High Court. Now members are to be chosen from among persons who in the opinion of the Central Government have special knowledge of commercial, industrial or economic conditions of the country, or of the commercial working of the railways. (3) Formerly, the tenure of the office of the President and the members was a matter for Government's discretion. Now the tenure of the Chairman and members is limited by law to a maximum period of 5 years. Re-appointment is also barred. (4) Formerly, two advisory panels of assessors were constituted to assist the Tribunal. With the abolition of these panels, the Tribunal will hereafter function without any assessors. (5) The powers of the Tribunal have been curtailed by withdrawing certain matters from its jurisdiction. (6) The procedure of sittings has been simplified.

These recent changes in a relatively minor Tribunal have been noted at length because they seem to indicate a certain amount of re-thinking on the principles of administrative tribunals.

There are certain other agencies of the Government which are also 'judicialised', such as the collectors of customs and excise, the Central Board of Revenue or Boards of Revenue in the states. As such agencies are manned by the permanent civil service, they cannot

8. The Tribunal dealt with 30 complaints in 5 years (1950-1955). *Estimates Committee 25th Report* p. 12.

9. Statement of objects and reasons given in the Bill as introduced.

really be treated as tribunals. They are essentially part of the normal administrative set-up. Occasional departures have been attempted to add to the independence of such agencies. Thus an officer of a Joint Secretary's status from the Ministry of *Law* is associated with the Secretary of the Department of Revenue to examine revision petitions against the Central Board of Revenue's orders in appeal. It may be mentioned, however, that the Secretary of the Department of Revenue is also the Chairman of the Central Board of Revenue.

The conclusions suggested by this brief discussion are firstly that there is no particular design in the procedures employed in reviewing decisions affecting citizens. At one extreme, an aggrieved party is permitted to appeal straightway to a court. At the other extreme, resort to judicial redress in similar matters is sought to be shut out by making administrative decisions final and above question in a court. Between these two extremes, various kinds of remedies are available for redress. In some, Government itself is the appellate authority or provides a special appellate organ within the departments; in others, tribunals of different degrees of autonomy undertake adjudication. Secondly, the principles of redress through tribunals have a more judicial and impartial bias than other remedies and, consequently, review or adjudication by tribunals are likely to be generally more acceptable than departmental review or adjudication. Thirdly, we have not made much use of tribunals in conducting our public administration. It cannot be that we have no use for them. If for nothing else, the heavy litigation involving administrative agencies to which a reference has been made earlier and which is a symptom, should be adequate enough reason for considering their place in our system of public administration more seriously. But the question has wider implications.

VI

The present position is generally such as to allow public authorities in a vast field of administration at all levels to play the part of decider and judge in their own cause. "The honest, able and dutiful civil servant who brushes aside individual objections in an ever-widening field does so in the name of the people—for the public good and at parliament's bidding."¹⁰ If this could be said of the situation in the U.K., a land of many tribunals, it applies with even greater force to this country. It is not as if civil servants in India are ordinarily unjust or arbitrary in dealing with the public. The case for reasonable

10. *The Economist*, July 27, 1957. 'Our own monster', leading article.

safeguards and an adequate code of just procedure stands on its own merits from the wisdom of the old maxim that justice must not only be done but manifestly and openly be seen to be done. Efficiency and integrity in administration, cannot be a good enough substitute for this maxim, "for power is a heady thing; and even the best of men get delusions of omnipotence."¹¹ In a democratic state, with the constitution that we have, rapid industrialisation and general awakening, the exercise of administrative authority has been increasingly open to public vigilance and challenge. Popular attitudes bred through centuries of undemocratic regimes, which accepted the finality of administrative decisions almost as a law of nature and generally looked to administrative authority for redress against wrongful or excessive use of power, have happily been disturbed. The challenge has to be met by ministers no less than by civil servants. Of all things, it is their actions which have the most impact on a citizen's rights and interests and it would not be unnatural for the citizen to assess the quality of other institutions, such as political parties, Parliament and the Government in general through his own experiences of the administrative process.

The lawsuit method of adjudication of disputes between the citizen and the Government has its own limitations. As a rule, an individual or a group would not wish to go to court against the Government for the fun of it. It would be reasonable to assume that he would be less inclined to do so if he had some other adequate means of seeking redress. On the other hand, he may not be able to afford judicial redress and choose to pay up or otherwise put up with a decision which he considers unjust, but nurse a real or imagined grievance against the Government and attribute it to lack of integrity or equity or both in the administration. He is, in consequence, not likely to be as good and co-operative a citizen as he might have been if he had the feeling that he had been at least manifestly treated with justice. He will very likely consider it unavoidable to resort to questionable means in his dealings with the Government or recompense himself through some anti-social act or be a source of disaffection. Administrative justice has thus by no means an insignificant or remote bearing on the quality of the civic sense of the people.

An adequate system of administrative remedies should be welcome no less by public servant as an incentive to impartial and fair decision. No official would wish to have his decisions reversed frequently. The mere existence of a venue where a decision may be challenged is bound to enhance its quality without giving cause for

11. William O. Douglas, *We the Judges*, Garden City, N. Y., 1956, p. 179.

shirking responsibility. Such remedies, it is suggested, will also tend to make good, to some extent at least, the fall in the efficiency of the public services in recent years. To the extent that decisions by less than adequately efficient officials can cause as much injustice as those taken arbitrarily by efficient ones, there is need for equipping the organs of present day public administrations with the mechanics of a second opinion through tribunals. It would be short-sighted to regard them as a dilution of the powers of civil servants and ministers.

We have illustrated the extent to which the legislatures have permitted a comingling of the powers of administration of laws, investigation, assessment, decision, arbitration and adjudication in the hands of the executive government. It stresses the need for bringing about an *internal separation of powers* within the departments to ensure equitable and just administration of laws. Without such separation, the legislatures are liable to arrogate their own powers. The device of the administrative tribunal seems to hold the key to this internal separation of powers. President Roosevelt's observation of 17 years ago that the "very heart of modern reform of administration is the administrative tribunal"¹² applies aptly to the present day needs of public administration in India.

But as in the United States so in India, the legal profession is not likely to take kindly to administrative tribunals. It would be inclined to demand "as of the highest importance, that a code of judicial procedure for administrative tribunals should be devised and insisted upon".¹³ It would be prone to fear that tribunals "may materially affect or impinge upon the fundamental rights and liberties of the citizen."¹⁴ This reminds us of another part of President Roosevelt's message "... a large part of the legal profession has never reconciled itself to the existence of the administrative tribunal. Many of them prefer the stately ritual of the courts in which lawyers play all the speaking parts, to the simple procedure of administrative hearings which a client can understand and even participate in... for years such lawyers have led a persistent fight against the administrative tribunal."¹⁵

In view of such temperamental bias, it would be unwise to leave all the thinking on the subject of administrative tribunals to minds attached to judicial procedures in everything. Any scheme of

12 & 15. President Roosevelt's message to the Congress vetoing the Logan-Walter Bill (Dec. 1940).

13. K.M. Munshi's address to the Seminar on Administrative Law (*Hindustan Times*—December 15, 1957).

14. Resolution of the Advocates Association of Andhra Pradesh, passed on September 13, 1957.

tribunals should be a product of joint thinking by persons of judicial, administrative and legislative training, experience and attitudes if it is to provide reasonable safeguards to the citizen without impeding the administrative process. The proper approach should be to regard the tribunals and the courts as partners and not antagonists in ensuring equitable application of laws. Their methods are bound to be different but they should be regarded as complementary and not exclusive.

The advantages claimed for the procedures of tribunals as against the procedures of courts are that the former will have a greater degree of specialisation, informality, simplicity and expedition and will be less expensive. Their procedures, however, will command the consent of the citizen to the extent that they are characterised by "openness, fairness and impartiality."¹⁶ "In the field of tribunals openness appears to us to require the publicity of proceedings and knowledge of the essential reasoning underlying the decisions; fairness to require the adoption of a clear procedure which enables parties to know their rights, to present their case fully and to know the case which they have to meet; and impartiality to require the freedom of tribunals from the influence, real or apparent, of Departments concerned with the subject-matter of their decisions."¹⁷

Judged in the light of these objectives, which are unexceptionable, we find that among our tribunals which come nearest to satisfying them are those which deal with disputes to which *Government* is *not* a party, viz. election and labour tribunals. In other, such as income-tax appellate, railway rates and insurance tribunals, the statutory provisions and rules made under them obviously fall short of these objectives in varying degrees.

This brings us to the consideration of the question whether tribunals should be regarded "as part of the machinery of administration for which the government should retain a close and continuous responsibility"¹⁸ or "as machinery provided by parliament for adjudication rather than as part of the machinery of administration."¹⁹ While theoretically there is a great deal to be said for the latter view, this writer is inclined to favour the former as more suitable to our present conditions. But it should be possible to reconcile the two views by incorporating sufficient safeguards to ensure a greater degree

16. *Report of the Committee on Administrative Tribunals and Enquiries* (U.K.) Para 23.

17. *Ibid.*, Para 42.

18. Official opinion in the U.K. tends to hold this view. *Ibid.* (Para 40), also para 5713 of the Minutes of Evidence.

19. This is the view of the Franks Committee.

of independence of tribunals than exists at present without going to the other extreme of keeping them completely outside the machinery of government. This view is held on the ground that tribunals should not be placed outside the influence of considerations of policy entering the decision-making process. In a country undergoing the pains of economic growth and social and political changes, policy is bound to play a more dynamic role than normally in shaping decisions, and tribunals are liable to suffer in their value if kept beyond the issues of policy. They would, however, be expected to apply considerations of policy in all cases equitably.

It is also perhaps necessary to state the obvious in the interest of clarification that it is not suggested that every kind of administrative action should be open to challenge before a tribunal. It would indeed, establish a mobocracy if each citizen assumed that he has the right to question every action of the administration. Certain fields of administrative decisions are, therefore, bound to remain outside the jurisdiction of tribunals, for example, in matters affecting citizenship, passports, and security of state. Broadly speaking, matters like land acquisition, compensation for land and other assets acquired or nationalised, rent control, assessment of house-tax by local authorities, other taxation at the central and state levels, transport control and licensing, and rights of individuals under social security laws are eminently suitable matters for administrative tribunals. Thus the Railway Rates Tribunal could be further re-organised and re-designated as the Rates and Claims Tribunal and entrusted with the function of adjudication of claims. Even if such adjudication were to succeed in only half the number of cases (running into thousands) its benefits are bound to be appreciated by the claimants, the railways and the courts.²⁰ It is also not inconceivable that the Kerala Education Bill as passed by the state legislature might have provoked less controversy if the bill had provided for an open, fair and impartial tribunal for the adjudication of disputes between private schools and the Government if not also for *prior* consultation with and decision by it on any proposals of the Government affecting any school. This would have tended to allay fears that Government intervention may be arbitrary or political.

VI

We referred in the preceding section to the merits of adjudication by tribunals and the conditions which they should satisfy to

20. It is interesting to note that in its 26th report the Estimates Committee came very near to this in recommending that *controversial* claims cases may be referred by the railways to the Tribunal for *opinion* before proceeding to courts of law, to save a lot of expenditure and litigation.

command general consent. The Government of the United Kingdom has accepted these conditions unreservedly²¹ and legislation is proposed to be passed to regulate the procedures of the tribunals broadly on these principles. But it would not be correct to infer from this that if we too were to establish a net work of tribunals on similar principles, they would have the same legal status as tribunals have in the United Kingdom. This will be so because whereas in the U.K. the supreme law which the courts enforce is, in the last analysis, the law of Parliament, in India the supreme law is the Constitution. Judicial review of administrative action in the U.K. is accordingly limited to questions of statutory and common law construction. In India administrative action must not only adhere to statutes but in addition such action and the statutes authorising it must conform to the Constitution. This difference in the constitutional set-up of the two countries makes judicial review of administrative action in the U.K. relatively simple while in India it is closely tied to constitutional provisions and covers a much larger area.

The relevant provisions in our Constitution are—(i) Article 32, under which a citizen is entitled to move the Supreme Court for the enforcement of fundamental rights mentioned in part III of the Constitution and which empowers the Supreme Court to issue appropriate directions, orders or writs for the purpose; (ii) Article 136, which empowers the Supreme Court to grant special leave to appeal from any judgment or order in any cause or matter passed or made by any court or *tribunal* in India; (iii) Article 226, under which every High Court also is empowered to issue directions, orders or writs to any person or authority, including in appropriate cases *any Government* within its jurisdiction, for the enforcement of any of the fundamental rights and for *any other purpose*; and (iv) Article 227, which empowers every High Court to exercise superintendence over all courts and tribunals within its territorial jurisdiction.²² These provisions give to the citizen in India a greater judicial protection than is enjoyed by the citizen in the U. K. They also establish that the ouster of the jurisdiction of the courts and the finality intended to be given to administrative decisions thereby in so many of our enactments to which attention has been drawn, is not absolute. Thus the Supreme Court has held that “notwithstanding the provision in the Representation of the People Act of 1951, that every order of an Election Tribunal made under the Act shall be final and conclusive, the High Court and the Supreme Court have unfettered jurisdiction to examine whether the tribunal...has acted legally or therwise.”

21. House of Commons debate, October 31, *The Times*, November 1, 1957.

22. The articles do not apply to military courts and tribunals.

They "alone can determine what the law of the land is *vis-a-vis* all other courts and tribunals and they alone can pronounce with authority and finality on what is legal and what is not. . . . *Limitations on the exercise of such jurisdiction can only be imposed by the constitution.*"²³ (italics supplied).

But it would be erroneous to conclude from this that administrative tribunals cannot play an effective role in our public administration unless the Constitution is amended. Such judicial remedies as we have are of course open to all. So are Ashoka Hotel and air-conditioned travel. The intrinsic merits of administrative remedies through tribunals, discussed above, suggest that regardless of judicial remedies our line of policy should be to provide them without disturbing the constitutional framework. To extinguish the judicial remedies against administrative decisions without *first* providing adequate administrative remedies *and* trying them out for some years, would be as rash as removing the traffic police without providing and trying out traffic lights. It is unfortunate that this question has generated more heat than light in recent months and has led responsible commentators to fear that "administrative law with its creature administrative tribunals, is, like martial law, practically the negation of law"²⁴ or that "it is somewhat strange, if not a piece of political irony, that a country which had fought for long for the separation of the judiciary and the executive should now be toying with the idea of permitting the invasion of the strictly judicial realm by executive authority."²⁵ Even in the U.K. there are not wanting people who think that "by putting the shadow of legal procedure between the Minister and his responsibility, he was shielded from the criticisms which were effective in curbing insolence of office."²⁶ Such views represent a misunderstanding of the real purpose of tribunals.

An amendment of the Constitution to curtail the powers of the High Courts or the Supreme Court or both in regard to administrative authorities and tribunals would be justified only if experience of the working of adequately constituted tribunals compels it. For this it is essential that tribunals should be so composed as to inspire confidence in their competence and impartiality and their procedures are so designated as to have all the advantages over those of the courts, to which a reference has been made earlier. Thus, there is no reason why, for example, the appointment, removal and conditions of service

23. *Sangram Singh v. Election Tribunal*, Kotah, Bhurey Lal Baya, S.C.R. Part I—July-August 1955.

24. *Times of India*, December 21, 1957 leading article.

25. *Commerce*, September 21, 1957 p. 526.

26. Paget (Labour), House of Commons debate, *Times*, November 1, 1957.

of the Chairman of the Income-tax Appellate Tribunal, the judicial members of its various benches, the Chairman of the Railway Rates and Claims Tribunal the establishment of which has been suggested, and the Chairman of the Foreign Exchange Regulation Appellate Board should not be under the control of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court or subject to his concurrence. Likewise, there should be no objection to appointing persons with the concurrence of the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court or Chief Justices of the High Courts to perform the quasi-judicial functions of the Collectors of Customs and Excise, the Central Board of Revenue, the Boards of Revenues in the States and for similar functions in other spheres.

By so removing traces of departmentalism from existing and future tribunals, the question of amending the Constitution to curtail judicial remedies against administrative decisions may never arise, for, it would not be unreasonable to hope that as the tribunals succeed in making the administrative process increasingly just and equitable, the courts would develop a more dynamic concept of judicial review and would be less inclined to intervene; the citizen would have less provocation for seeking judicial review; and ministers and civil servants would have adjusted themselves to the idea of exercising their powers increasingly subject to more immediate review by bodies independent of them. It follows that it would be premature at this stage to amend the Constitution. But it is not difficult to see the ways which the more impatient among us may wish to follow. In the immediate instance, they would obviously want to so amend the Constitution to abolish or curtail judicial review of specified tribunals and government action concerning taxation and labour. The more cautious would perhaps wish to curtail only the writ powers of the High and Supreme Courts. In any case, articles 32, 136 and 226 would be the focus of attention. It is to be hoped that the gaze will be forward-looking.

VII

Before concluding we may refer briefly to the basic principles of administrative tribunals in France, only to draw attention to the differences between French notions and practice and our ideas and experience of them, because very often the words used are similar but their meanings are different. Administrative tribunals in France have co-existed with the ordinary courts of law as a separate and independent instrument of adjudication. The two systems have had their respective jurisdictions, determined mostly by rules and occasionally by statutes. It is these rules and statutes which constitute *droit administratif*. In general, the judicial courts are competent to deal

with all suits relating to private persons. The tribunals are competent to deal with matters concerning public administration except those organisations of it which function as private establishments, such as nationalised companies and railways. They are in fact special administrative courts and they were known as such till recently. Thus *droit administratif* is altogether different from administrative law as we understand it. While France has both, countries like India, the U.K. and the U.S.A. have no *droit administratif*. Considerable confusion is liable to ensue through a literal translation of the French term.

The philosophy of administrative tribunals in France is that a proper separation of powers requires that each of the three branches of government should be self-contained and should not interfere with the other branches. This belief has ruled out the idea of any review of administrative action by the judiciary and has held that an appeal from an administrative authority should lie to a higher administrative organ just as an appeal from a judicial court lies to a higher court. The French tribunals accordingly function within an independent legal framework called *droit administratif* but what they deal with are essentially matters arising from the operation of administrative law such as we have. Their supervision vests in the supreme national tribunal, the *Conseil d'Etat*.

The country has thus a network of departmental (provincial) and regional tribunals for various purposes and where no tribunal is available for any matter, a citizen is entitled to go direct to the supreme body. The tribunals are competent to quash administrative orders. On the general principle that a citizen is entitled to two degrees of jurisdiction, the decision of a tribunal can be questioned in the *Conseil d'Etat* either by way of an appeal or by way of review. Any tribunal which is not subject to the *Conseil d'Etat* by way of appeal is always subject to it by way of review.

It is neither necessary nor possible for us to refer here to their composition, procedures, scope of operations and achievements. But this much could be said that in the very nature of its basic principles and historical circumstances, which have shaped its growth, the French system is wholly alien to the principles and provisions of our constitution, social conditions and practical requirements. However well it may have protected French citizens against arbitrary administrative action, any conclusion that a corresponding or a similar system would flourish in Indian environments would not be warranted. This is said, however, without underrating the value of studying other systems.

By comparison the American experiment has more practical lessons for India in view of the common factor of judicial review obtaining in both countries. In the U.S.A. the exercise of the powers of administration and adjudication has been regulated since 1946 by the Administrative Procedure Act. This is the first legislative attempt in that country to lay down a code of essential principles of fair administrative procedures. This Act "mirrored the mood of discontentment with the administrative process" and evolved a set of principles binding upon all administrative tribunals and agencies "whose decisions affect the person or property of private citizens."²⁷ It governs both the day-to-day administrative procedures and procedures in respect of decisions in dispute. The idea suggested by this American experiment is that a regulation of ordinary administrative procedures leading to decisions in the first instance could also be a useful *complement* to a system of tribunals in India. To the extent that initial procedures are made fair the number of cases going up to the tribunals would tend to be smaller.

The above survey has been no more than a *tour d' horizon* of the vast field of its subject. As it has much in common with problems of jurisprudence, it is suggested that an expert study of it based on actual observations of the working of tribunals in India and elsewhere be made by a non-official group under the joint auspices of the Indian Institute of Public Administration and the Indian Law Institute. The nature of the problem is such as to suggest that such a group could give a helpful lead to any official examination of it which the Government, it may reasonably be anticipated, is likely to find necessary to undertake, sooner or later.

27. Memorandum of Prof. B. Schwartz, Minutes of Evidence, *Franks Committee*, 22nd day, p. 1008.

THE HINDUSTAN HOUSING FACTORY

K. S. Krishna Swamy

FOR the efficient management of an enterprise, the nature of its ownership is not as important as balanced organisation, sound policies and efficient work methods. The latter, in turn, largely depend upon management philosophy and leadership. The common notion that private industry, as a rule, is efficient and public management inefficient is not only wrong but also ill-conceived; the techniques and methods of good management are equally applicable both to public and private enterprise. The account of the growth and development of the Hindustan Housing Factory, which is given below, amply illustrates this basic truth. The account is in no way intended to throw any reflections on the previous management of the Factory, nor to make special claims for public management; it is only an attempt to show what can be achieved in either of the sectors, public or private, by good management and sound workways.

The Hindustan Housing Factory was originally established in 1950 to manufacture prefabricated houses in view of the shortage of accommodation due to the influx of displaced persons. It was then known as the Government Housing Factory and was set up as a wholly government-owned and operated enterprise. However, it had to stop production after a few months of its working due to certain technical and economic difficulties. Its fixed assets were maintained on a caretaker basis over the next $2\frac{1}{2}$ years; the question of the utilisation of these assets was examined in detail in 1951 first by the Moolgaonkar Committee, and then by the Bhatnagar Committee. As a result of their recommendations the Factory was reconstituted as a joint stock company with a paid-up capital of Rs. 1 lakh, half of which was owned by Government and half by Messrs. Basakha Singh and Wallenborg Ltd.

The day-to-day management of the new concern was handed over to a private firm, considering that the enterprise was still in a promotional stage and could be, with advantage, managed by a private concern. The assets of the Factory were leased out to Messrs. Basakha Singh and Wallenborg Ltd. on a rental basis; they were also to provide all the working capital. The overall direction of the policies of the reconstituted Factory, which commenced operations on April 1, 1953, was placed in the hands of a 5-member Board of Directors; Messrs. Basaka Singh and Wallenborg Ltd., had two

representatives on this Board—the Technical Director and the Managing Director. The production programme of the Factory was switched over from prefabricated houses to the manufacture of prefabricated and pre-stressed housing components and pre-cast pre-stressed concrete and reinforced concrete components and boards and sheets. The Factory, however, sustained a loss of Rs. 14.7 lakhs during its working for $2\frac{1}{3}$ years (1st April, 1953 to 15th August, 1955) under private management. This loss was primarily due to “excessive overheads and lack of complete identity of interests between the two partners of Basakha Singh and Wallenborg Ltd., leading to poor management generally; lack of adequate orders to keep the machinery etc., fully utilised, and insufficiency of working capital when work did not start coming in.”*

II

The Central Government took over the management, operation and maintenance of the Factory on 16th August, 1955, with its all assets and liabilities. An expert committee presided over by Shri S. Ranganathan, I.C.S., was appointed in October 1955 to examine the feasibility of the Factory being run by Government in its then existing form or in some other form. If either of these two alternatives was not found feasible, the Committee was required to consider how best the Factory could be disposed of. The Committee recommended that the Hindustan Housing Factory should be continued to run as an entirely state-owned private limited company with an authorised share capital of Rs. 75 lakhs, (paid up capital as Rs. 40 lakhs) and the working capital of Rs. 30 to 40 lakhs. It also recommended the appointment of a 6-member Board of Directors and of a General Manager under the Board to look after the day-to-day management of the Factory. The new Board which is to be constituted will have as its Chairman the representative of the Ministry of Works, Housing and Supply, and as its members representatives of Ministries of Finance, Commerce and Industry, Defence, the Railway Board and the Central Public Works Department.

During the period from 16th October, 1955 to the present date, during which the Factory has been run by Government through a Board of Directors, all of whom are Government servants, no loss has been incurred. On the other hand, the balance-sheet for the period from 1.8.1956 to 31.7.1957 reveals that after meeting all expenses

* Report of the Committee of Experts set up to determine the future of the Hindustan Housing Factory, New Delhi, Government of India Press, 1956, p.1.

of production and management and providing depreciation on fixed assets of the Factory and lease money payable to Government the Factory has made a net profit of nearly Rs. 39,000.

Apart from financial profit, the following table shows at a glance how production has been stepped up steadily after the management of this Factory was completely taken over by Government :

	Under management with a private firm		Under Government management			
	1.4.53 to 15.8.55 (2 years & 4½ months)	Monthly progress	16.8.55 to 31.7.56 (11½ months)	Monthly average	1.8.56 to 31.7.57 (12 months)	Monthly average
(in lakhs of rupees)						
1. Pre-stressed & pre-cast concrete Department	13.91	0.49	13.26	1.15	18.84	1.57
2. Foam Concrete Department	0.99	0.03	2.58	0.22	3.74	0.31
3. Woodwork Department	22.10	0.78	14.28	1.24	15.64	1.30
Total :	37.00		30.12		38.23	

When the factory was taken over by the Government in August, 1955, the morale both of workers and officers in the Factory was running very low. The foremost problem for the new management, therefore, was of overhauling of production, organisation and work methods as well as of hightening the morale. Here, a clear-cut announcement by the Government of their intention to run the Factory on a regular basis in itself had a salutary effect on the work attitudes of the Factory personnel. They were not only assured of employment and security of tenure but could look forward with confidence to fairplay and amenities available to the employees in other government factories. Equally, and perhaps even more important, was the confidence which permeated down to the various levels of workers from the top management. When the present writer of the article took over as the Chairman of the Board of Directors, he had full confidence in his own ability to undertake successfully the difficult task of 'rejuvenating' an infant industrial unit, having already successfully managed big works like the putting up of Vigyan Bhavan* at a fairly rapid speed for the use of the UNESCO Conference. This

* A full account of it is given by the writer in "Vigyan Bhavan—A Study in Administrative Organisation", Indian Journal of Public Administration, Vol. III, No. 3, pp. 226-232.

confidence in due course spread to the whole organisation and is probably one of the most important factors that has contributed to the modest success the factory has recently been able to achieve. It points out, as before, to the fundamental truth that in any endeavour more important than money, machines and other facilities is the human material and the executive leadership which determines the manner in which the human material is handled and used.

On the side of production, efforts were directed to expand the manufacture of such products as would find a ready sale in the open market, *e.g.*, transmission poles, railway sleepers. Attempts are also being made to improve quality standards through the installation of improved production processes, *e.g.*, a seasoning and chemical plant for timber (to be set up) and research in reinforced foam concrete and roofing and flooring components. The bulk of the business of the Factory is now obtained by tendering in the open market; the Factory has to compete on an equal footing with any other industrial concern in engineering industry. A good portion of orders come from government departments, some of which have been willing to assist in steering the Factory out of difficult times. Here again, the quality of top management has been of great help in securing the co-operation of government departments. The production plans of the Factory, in years to come, would, as those of any other industrial concern, have to be adapted to the future needs of the engineering industry.

The most radical improvement effected by the new management was in the sphere of financial and production control. A financial accounts procedure and a cost accounts procedure have been evolved, and new forms of various returns required under these procedures have been introduced so that proper control on the financial side is exercised. The accounts system introduced is worked on the principle of reconciling the costs with the financial accounts. Later on, as the production in the Factory is stepped up, these two sides of accounts will be integrated. The strength of the cost accounts section of the Factory has been augmented and proper control of the cost of production is kept by recording all the expenses of direct material, direct labour, indirect material and various overheads for each work that is done in the Factory.

For maintaining effective control on production, the system of estimating production in advance for each month and comparing the actual performance of the month against the estimate has been instituted; and reasons for discrepancy between the two are examined in detail. The Production Committee enquires into the underlying causes of the bottlenecks in production which develop from time to

time and suggests necessary remedial measures; it also helps to co-ordinate the working of the different production sections.

The next task which the new management had to attend is related to the streamlining of the different Factory departments and their mutual relationships. In order to avoid duplication of responsibilities and functions, it was found necessary to define clearly the duties of the executives in charge of various sections. The duty sheets for lower categories of staff are also being worked out. An overall organisation plan showing the line of command and hierarchical relationships was drawn up to facilitate the flow of work.

Like any other government company, the Hindustan Housing Factory has to obtain the sanction of the Government for expanding its production; but this control by government is not likely to impede the progress of its activities. Expansion schemes, involving a total cost of Rs. 8.75 lakhs, were sanctioned by Government in April, 1957. The Factory today enjoys full autonomy in regard to day-to-day management. The General Manager, who is the Chief Executive, has been given quite a free hand by the Board of Directors in managing the affairs. The Board, as a rule, does not interfere in technical matters; and even in other important matters, the Board has generally accepted the advice of the General Manager unless there were weighty reasons to the contrary. There have been very few cases where the decision of the Board has not been communicated to the General Manager within a day or two of his bringing up the matter before it. Even though all the Directors of the Board are government servants, the manner in which they have so far functioned presents a refreshing contrast to the manner in which they ordinarily deal with their normal government business.

One of the major reasons for the success of the enterprise, as already mentioned, has been the confidence the new management has been able to instil in the labour force. In the early stages, obsessed with the previous spectre of the closure of the Factory, a good many of the workers were inclined to be unresponsive. They were taken into confidence by the management from the very outset; it was explained to them that the financial position of the Factory did not allow a general improvement in their wages for some time to come. As production was steadily stepped up and profits began to accrue, a number of benefits and amenities were provided for the employees. The staff on monthly basis was given graded scales of pay, provision made for increments for daily-rated personnel, and, a contributory provident fund scheme was instituted for all monthly paid staff.

Other amenities provided include canteen and recreation facilities. These benefits and amenities are estimated to cost Rs. 3 lakhs annually.

No less important is the association of workers with the arrangements for their welfare and with factory management through the establishment of advisory committees. There is, for instance, a Works Committee, a Production Committee, a Canteen Committee and a Houses Allotment Committee.

A third factor responsible for the improvement of morale has been the sense of security and fairplay which, in India, is inextricably linked up with jobs in a government institution.

III

The reader is likely to raise the basic question : "How far is the experience of the working of the Hindustan Housing Factory under public management really conclusive ?" True, that a spell of $2\frac{1}{2}$ years' of public management is too short a period to pronounce any final judgment. The Factory has passed the teething stage and is just now entering upon a normal career. Notwithstanding the above limitations its experience underlines the need for and the importance of (1) executive leadership in making state enterprises a success, and the effective role which senior government officers, on the Board of Directors, can play in this regard to overcome initial production and sale difficulties; (2) "fair deal" for labour as profits of the enterprise increase. If the top management of public enterprises firmly believes in, declares, and pursues the policy of augmenting employees' wages, benefits and other amenities with the increase in profits—a policy which the Hindustan Housing Factory at present subscribes and tries to live up to—, and further associates the workers actively in varying degrees with different aspects of factory management, *per capita* productivity in state enterprises is likely to far exceed that in the private sector. The rank and file of workers have, as a rule, greater faith and confidence in fairplay and justice under a government enterprise than under private management, and, with equitable terms and conditions of service, they are likely to produce much more under public management. The psychological climate which is thus likely to be created, by catalytic executive leadership combined with faith and confidence in the progressive policies of management arising from their practical application, may unleash a spate of energy far more powerful than the so-called profit motive.

WORK STUDY IN GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS

Indarjit Singh and K. N. Butani

WORK study is an old technique as applied to industry. Its translation to government organizations has been recent. Nevertheless, a considerable amount of literature is available on the manner and method of application of this technique to government organizations in different countries. Work study has been recently introduced in the Government of India for analysing methods of work and assessing the staffing needs of government organizations. This technique was first employed on an enquiry into the Re-organization of the Income-tax Department; the technique has since been widely used by the Special Re-organization Unit of the Ministry of Finance in the Government of India. The present article deals with the experience of the Special Re-organization Unit and with the problems that generally arise during the course of work study of government organizations. These have been described under the following headings :—

- (a) Tools of Analysis
- (b) Work Simplification
- (c) Work Measurement
- (d) Assessment of Staff
- (e) Organisational Matters

Tools of Analysis

One of the primary tasks in work study is to analyse the existing procedures of work in detail. We found that if this basic work is done properly and with care, it has considerable impact on the final results. We have therefore selected certain tools of analysis which are being used elsewhere and adapted them to our requirements. The basic tools of analysis that were used are mentioned below :—

- (i) Organizational Charts : Which display at a glance the disposition of persons constituting the organizational hierarchy, their lines of command and the functions performed by them.
- (ii) Duty Lists : Which display in terms of itemised jobs the functions assigned to individuals in the organization under study.

- (iii) Job Description Sheets : Which indicate the sequence of steps that occur in the performance of a particular job or piece work and the persons performing each step.
- (iv) Job Distribution Sheets : Which display the load borne by various types of persons in the organization in terms of steps constituting the jobs analysed in the form of Job Description Sheets.
- (v) Process Charts : Which are an elaboration of the Job Description Sheets in which various symbols are used to indicate the nature of action performed at various steps in the job.
- (vi) Flow Charts : Which display the flow of work in the organization as a whole or in any part in order to locate problem areas from the point of view of work simplification and avoidance of delays, overlaps and waste.

The Job Description and Distribution Sheets are the most important of the tools that we have employed. Samples of these sheets are shown in Statements A & B (pp. 206-8). It will be noticed that they differ in some respect from the standard charts of this character used elsewhere. The basic difference in the Job Description Sheet is that it not only records the steps required to perform a job but also provides for columns which facilitate later the process of work simplification. For example, it enables us to formulate our recommendations relating to standardisation of forms in respect of items of work which are of a repetitive nature. It also assists in designating the strategic steps that should be controlled with a view to more effective supervision.

We have also changed the purpose of the job Distribution Sheet as used elsewhere, a sample of which appears at pp. 210-11. The basic difference is in the fact that the form is employed in standard work study analysis to record the contribution of each participant in a job on the basis of the existing procedures of work. The time content of the various steps constituting the jobs is also indicated simultaneously. We have used the form to indicate the contribution of each participant after the procedures have been simplified. This serves two purposes. In the first place, it gives at a glance the nature of duties of each participant on the basis of which

rational duty lists are evolved. Secondly, it enables the contribution to be measured in terms of work units and thus serves as a basis for work measurement studies.

Work Simplification

The information gathered in the Job Description Sheet is analysed with the help of Process and Flow Charts in order to suggest simplifications in the performance of the various jobs constituting the sum-total of the work in the organization. The study for work simplification is always undertaken in collaboration with the persons who are engaged on the performance of the various jobs. Unless we are able to convince them and establish definitely that the revised procedures are not only the simplest but also the less circuitous and the most effective under the circumstances, we do not proceed further with our ideas of simplification. We have however found that it is always possible to arrive at a solution which is acceptable to the actual workers and is also the simplest and the best having regard to the organizational and occupational environments in which the job has to be performed.

It will be interesting to refer here to some of the common types of problems that we have encountered during the course of work simplification :—

- (1) Number of stages through which papers have to pass is large.
- (2) Number of steps taken to reach decision are large in comparison with the needs of the situation.
- (3) More effort is being put into some of the steps constituting the job than is needed for effective performance.
- (4) Drafting and typing are being done for processes which are so repetitive that a suitable standard form would meet the requirements.
- (5) Statistical reports and statements are capable of being rationalised to give more effective results and reduction in their numbers.
- (6) Registration of incoming documents is not analytical enough to enable work to be organised efficiently.
- (7) Related jobs are being performed in different work-units thus leading to movement of papers which can be avoided.
- (8) Methods of exercising control over performance of important procedures need redesigning so as to make

exercise of supervisory functions effective as also to enlarge the amplitude of supervision.

- (9) Low-cost jobs are being performed by high cost personnel.

It will be noticed that these problems are simple enough but they have raised considerable amount of controversy and a good deal of argumentation and critical references when they are under discussion with the persons actually performing the jobs and their superior officials.

It has been our experience that the process of work simplification not only reduces the number of steps but also throws up valuable material for organizational analysis and work measurement. It is in this process that the germs of the entire solution to the problems that we are investigating are found. It is therefore natural that a good deal of controversy should arise at this stage of the work. The actual workers and the authorities concerned become aware, during the course of work simplification, of the manner in which the mind of the analyst is working and are, therefore, able to anticipate, to some extent, the recommendations that are likely to emerge. We have found considerable enthusiasm in accepting the results of method study. Sometimes even a certain amount of competitive element is introduced in the sense that the organizations anticipate the recommendations of the work study team and begin to formulate their own ideas on the changes that ought to be made having regard to the facts as discovered and analysed by the team. This is in accordance with the objectives of work study and we have several times thought it prudent to let the credit for effecting improvements be passed on to the organizations under study rather than to the work study team.

The attitude however is somewhat different at the stage of work measurement and assessment of staffing needs. Where the recommendations are likely to affect adversely the staffing position of the organization concerned, the actual workers, as well as such of the senior administrative officials who have not full faith in the method of work study, fight their last ditch battle either to delay the completion of the work or to confound the work study analyst. Work simplification has been found by us to be the real test of the success of a work-study analyst.

One could multiply a large number of examples taken from actual case sheets of the Special Re-organization Unit to illustrate the manner in which some of the ideas given above were applied in actual practice. It will, however, make the narrative a little heavy if such examples are introduced at this stage. They have therefore been given as *Notes* at the end of this article.

Work Measurement

After completion of the Work Simplification programme revised Job Description Sheets are prepared, displaying the redesigned procedures of work. In order to appreciate the contribution of each type of employee, it is necessary to break down the revised Job Descriptions and record them in the Job Distribution Sheet. Ordinarily the constituent elements of a job performed by different employees fall into either of the two categories mentioned below :—

- (i) Repetitive steps such as diarisation, filing, noting of movement, referencing, indexing, opening of new files, typing, despatch, etc., which are common to almost all the procedures; and
- (ii) Non-repetitive steps which are intimately related to the character of the job though some of them may be common to other jobs also. They constitute the real content of the job.

For repetitive steps, agreed 'norms' have been evolved after adjusting past performance in the light of results obtained from the work simplification programme. While the performance of almost all such steps is undoubtedly capable of being time-tested accurately, the stop-watch methods of work measurement have been deliberately avoided because of the reluctance of office workers to such a procedure. It is not as though we have always succeeded in avoiding recourse to the stop watch. In some cases, we were compelled to utilise it as there was no other way of carrying conviction to the organization concerned. However this required considerable education of the organization on the manner in which these studies should be carried out. The following description of an actual instance of this nature brings out some of the difficulties that arise and consequent preparation that has to be made.

We took the following items for time study :—

- (i) Perusal of a request for an application form and noting of the applicant's address on wrappers.
- (ii) Preparation of folders to contain application forms.
- (iii) Entry of a 'receipt' in the Receipt Register.
- (iv) Typing of addresses of applicants from wrappers prepared as at (i) above.
- (v) Scrutiny of applications for completeness.

For the time-test, the officers in charge of the organization under study offered two persons of 'average' calibre actually engaged

in their performance. An interesting innovation in the time-test was the introduction of a 'guinea pig' with the object of importing realism so that the results could be made more acceptable. An inexperienced Clerk drawn from outside the organization under study, who was almost a 'fresher' having had till then experience only of typing work, was the 'guinea pig' employed. The organization itself offered to impart the necessary instruction for the performance of the steps to him for a couple of hours before the actual time test each day. Fairly representative items of work involving the performance of the steps to be time-tested each day were made available by the organization. Before each test, the three persons concerned were clearly told that the time-test was not a 'race' in which performance was to be judged by speed. The form used for the time-test is shown as Statement 'C' (p. 209). The results obtained were revealing in sense that the average time taken by each of them was almost the same and this average 'norm' was much less, and for one or two items astonishingly lower than the 'hunches' of many of us, the officers conducting the study as well as officers of the organization itself.

For assessing the work-content of the non-repetitive steps, we have employed the methods of analytical estimation, time synthesis and delay-ratio, which involve extensive case-studies and group discussions. Let us take for example the step involved in the procedure for considering the question of levy of damages against a supplier who has delayed the execution of the contract beyond the stipulated date. Extensive case-studies indicated that the step, namely the *consideration of the question*, which at first may appear to be a rather intangible process, consists predominantly of the following sub-steps :

1. Perusal of the contract with a view to jotting down :
 - (i) The name of the supplier,
 - (ii) Particulars of stores,
 - (iii) Value of stores, and
 - (iv) Stipulated date of delivery etc.
2. Perusal of certificate of completion of delivery.
3. Arithmetical calculation of maximum damages leviable according to prescribed formula.
4. Perusal of supplier's explanation giving reasons for delay.
5. Jotting down of all the above particulars in a standard form.

We would then take a person of "average" calibre actually employed on the job and jot down the time he feels he would take in the light of past experience in the performance of *each such sub-step*. The advantage of thus estimating the time taken by each sub-step

is that it forms a more convincing basis of discussion than an estimation based on the performance of the composite step. The 'norm' so obtained is compared with a similar performance of other 'average' employees and an acceptable 'norm' is evolved. Illustrations of work measurement of such steps could be multiplied but the essence of the scheme is the same : the steps are analysed further into sub-steps, and the time estimation synthesised on the basis of such constituent sub-steps into a standard 'form'.

A synthesis of 'norms' for such steps and repetitive steps in the performance of a particular job or a portion of the job falling to the share of each *type of person* gives the standard 'norm' for the performance of that job in terms of man-hours of that particular category of employee. For example the standard 'norm' for the performance of a particular job would be X man-hours of a junior clerk, Y man-hours of a senior clerk and Z man-hours of the supervisory staff.

Before we take up the several refinements which had necessarily to be imported into work measurement methods, let us describe briefly the Delay Ratio Method of measurement which was actually applied in evolving standards of performance of some Appellate Officers. The method consists in taking a specified period of past performance and assessing the factors which impeded the more effective performance of the job. For example, such factors, for those Appellate Officers were the frequency of adjournments asked for by the appellants, the delay in receipt of records from lower formations, heterogeneity of case fixtures for a particular day etc. etc. Measures were designed to curtail the recurrence of such factors and this way additional productive capacity was generated.

Whichever method is adopted, it does not carry conviction unless a large number of case-studies of past performance in respect of identical or similar items of work are made. It is seldom however that case-studies indicate the evolution of a simple 'norm' for performance of a particular job. Almost every item of work has been found on case-studies to consist of several categories where even though the work-content differed widely from category to category, it was fairly uniform within each category itself. One of the preliminary steps therefore is to classify the work in such homogenous categories. This enables the norms to be evolved more realistically as fluctuations between the average and extreme types of work are much less pronounced in each category than in the total work.

If the relative frequency of occurrence of each such category is known, or can be predicted to a fair degree of accuracy, a 'weighted' average can be prescribed as the standard 'norm' for the performance

of that particular job. We have, however, found it more rational to prescribe different 'norms' for different categories and have future inflow of work registered in Diversified Records. Thus the re-designed Registration Records would display the future complexion of work, not only in terms of items of work requiring differing degrees of priority for disposal as explained earlier but also according to degrees of work-content.

In this way, for example, the price finalisation cases in a Purchase Organization were divided into three categories:—

- (i) Cases which involved fluctuations in f.o.b. prices.
- (ii) Cases which involved fluctuations in the price of raw materials like steel, etc.
- (iii) Cases which involved fluctuations in customs duty.

Separate 'norms' were evolved for each one of them since the time required for the performance of the job varied from 5-6 hours for the first category to about half an hour for the last. This scheme of evolution of 'norms' on the basis of actual complexion of the load as against its totality has been found effective in almost every organization studied by us.

A very significant feature of work-measurement studies has been a constant shift from existing 'norms' in terms of incoming documents which are no true index of work-content to 'norms' in terms of distinct items of work, suitably categorised as explained above. Thus standards of performance in purchase units are evolved in terms of indents instead of incoming documents. In price-finalisation units, in terms of various categories of price finalisation cases instead of incoming documents; and in the organization dealing with Government residences, in terms of vacancies instead of total number of residences.

Assessment of Staff

The staffing needs of the organization are worked out by multiplying the standards of performance with total amount of work. The determination of the latter however is not an easy task for the reason that existing records are not maintained to display the work in the same analytical form as indicated by the processes of work simplification and case-studies. This difficulty has been overcome by analysing a sample chosen purely at random and projecting its results to cover the whole work provided they square with the judgment of the officers of the organization concerned. This has led sometimes to differences of opinion, but, by persisting with a large enough sample, agreements have been provisionally reached on the volume of total

work-counts of different categories. As records will in future be maintained on the basis of the suggestions made, the results obtained from the random sample could be tested after a few months.

In working out the total manpower requirements allowance has always been made for such human factors as fatigue, frictional loss etc. This takes the form of an over-all percentage of the total man-hours worked out on the basis of 'norms' of performance.

Simplification of methods of work inevitably leads to saving in manpower. It is at this stage that the enthusiasm of those that are sceptical of this method begins to decline. The difficulties that arise consume a disproportionate time owing to the unwillingness of the authorities to work, on accepted improved methods, with less staff than was in position at the commencement of the study. This reluctance is understandable as the efficacy of new arrangements cannot be demonstrated except by testing them actually in a part of the organization. Usually this succeeds in converting the authorities or in making the work-study analyst wiser about the factors that he miscalculated. Owing to the short time for which the Special Re-organization Unit has been in existence, we cannot say that full use has been made of installing methods to prove their efficacy. We propose to make greater use of this in future as it is a vital part of the system of work study.

Organizational Matters

The work studies, made by us so far, have revealed some interesting problems in organizational planning. The important issue that arose was whether the methods study, work simplification programme, etc., should precede an analysis of the organization at the top, or should it succeed it? Having regard to the circumstances of administrative set-up in the country, it has been found more profitable to make an analysis of the organizational structure only after the methods of work have been carefully planned out and simplified. This is specially true in the organizational set-up of the secretariat of the government. The higher structure is meant partly for some high-grade original work and partly for span of control. Since the latter is more than half the part of the ingredients of supervision, it is necessary that the analysis of the superstructure of the organization should follow the evolution of the design of the basic primary unit, the quality of work and the volume of load that it has to carry.

In this respect we have departed from the normal practice of work analysis adopted elsewhere of segregating organizational studies from methods studies and pursuing both of them more or less as

independent assignments to be linked up later. We have considered them as a continuing part of the same assignment and reversed the normal pattern of priorities assigned to it in view of the circumstances in which we have to function.

The study of organizational structure is somewhat limited in that certain patterns of a rigid character already exist. The work analyst has therefore to proceed on certain pre-determined systems but the scope for fresh thinking is considerable in spite of the restrictive nature of the atmosphere in which we have to work. We indicate below some of the organizational problems that emerged from our work studies:

(i) *Grading of Personnel*: An assessment of the intrinsic worth of the non-routine steps involved in the performance of jobs entrusted to a work unit indicates the gradation of the person required for the effective performance of that job. Thus, we have found quite often that high cost personnel were being used for intrinsically low cost jobs either because of a strict adherence to the prescribed structure of the primary unit of work or because of high cost and low cost functions being mixed in a work unit. Thus, to a substantial extent, it was the nature of the steps required to be performed that determined the structure of the primary unit of work itself.

(ii) *Assessment of need for functional specialists*: Detailed work-analysis and extensive case-study of the non-routine steps have actually indicated in several studies the need for functional specialists not only in the line but in the lower echelons of organizations entrusted with policy-making so that work gets expedited with the availability of experts at the earliest stage in policy formulation. Such a need was felt in work-units dealing with price-finalisation work, Sales-tax work, etc.

(iii) *Supervisory functions*: Work studies have indicated the need and extent of supervision necessary for the proper performance of jobs. Methods designed to provide the control mechanism determine the span of control of supervisory staff, their means of communication etc. and therefore determine the structural arrangements necessary for effective supervision.

(iv) *Need for segregation of policy and executive functions*: A heterogeneous assignment of functions, involving the exercise of policy as well as executive functions, gets revealed by work studies which involve analysis of procedures emanating from the exercise of those functions. Apart from the organizational merit of segregation of such functions, amalgamation of executive functions with policy functions automatically results in high cost personnel being brought to engage their attention on low cost jobs because of set high-cost patterns of staffing for policy-making organizations.

(v) *Need for functional distribution of work* : Analysis of procedures of work have indicated often the need for functional distribution of work. It was a study of the existing methods of work for dealing with procurement of stores which indicated the separable nature of planning of procurement, process of procurement, and finalisation work and led to functionalisation of purchase work into a Planning Wing, Purchase Wing and Finalisation Wing.

(vi) *Need for avoiding over-functionalisation* : Conversely analysis of existing procedures of work indicated the existence of a swing of the pendulum to the other extreme. Over-functionalisation of work into a Medical Section and Personnel Section in a particular organization lengthened the process of disposal of some items of work and enhanced their work-content.

(vii) *Multiplicity of consideration of important issues* : Analysis of work and case-studies of the non-routine steps in many organizations have indicated, that while for resolution of important issues or formulation of policy, there has to be a multiplicity of 'consideration' at various levels in the organizational hierarchy, the need for papers to move through *each* level in the hierarchy between the level of first handling and the level of final decision needs to be re-assessed.

(viii) *Structure of the primary unit of work* : By far the most important results brought out by work studies has been the importance of the structure of the primary unit of work. Under existing arrangements, there was almost a uniform pattern of staffing of the primary work-unit, viz. a Section Officer in charge of the section with a fixed number of persons 'dealing' with work flowing into the section, assisted by a fixed number of junior clerks for routine work like typing etc. Work studies indicated that with rapidly expanding activities of Government, the complexion of functions now performed is so different that the setting up of the primary unit of work into pre-designed inflexible structures requires reconsideration.

Training work study personnel.

Lastly, we would like to refer to some of our difficulties. One of them is the lack of trained personnel for work study. We have heard the argument that almost anybody could be inducted into this business. We have found from experience that it is just the wrong way of organising work of this character. New personnel put on this work has brought more troubles and difficulties with the organization under study than we had bargained for. Trained personnel, on the other hand, has considerably assisted the Unit to remove misunderstandings about the nature of work that is being done by us. The personal

qualities required of those undertaking work study have been described in many text-books and we can testify that much of what is written about their intelligence, tact, perseverance, resourcefulness etc., is fully justified. A work-study analyst need not be super-human but he has certainly got to be fully trained in the art of analysis and has to have patience and persuasiveness which should be somewhat extraordinary. Such men cannot obviously be found any where but have to be fashioned out of good material that is available in the various organizations with which a work-study analyst has to deal. We have therefore adopted a number of methods by which the art of work study is not confined to a small unit in the government organization but is broad-based. In several cases we have given a demonstration of the manner in which the work should be done in a couple of primary units and left the rest of the analysis to be made by a person trained from the organization itself but under the general guidance of the Special Re-organization Unit. Secondly, we have undertaken a work study course of persons drawn from different organizations so that they can go back and apply the methods that they have learnt from the Special Re-organization Unit. The first batch has already completed its training. We are also receiving requests from State Governments for either material on the manner in which work study is being carried out or for training their men for that purpose. One of the objectives of work study is that each one of the persons should be able to analyse his work in order to economise on time and increase his efficiency. This is being amply fulfilled by the manner in which we are trying to decentralise this work so that it continues to be done where it is most needed.

NOTES

ACTUAL EXAMPLES OF IMPROVEMENTS RESULTING FROM THE APPLICATION OF 'WORK STUDY' TECHNIQUES

(i) Problems of Registration.

There is almost a dogmatic adherence to chronological registration of incoming documents in most of the government organizations. We have been exploring the possibility, where opportunities exist, of registering documents on the basis of certain identifiable categories, to which varying priorities could be attached for disposal and control. In a Purchase organization, we came across about four categories of incoming documents which accounted for 60-70% of the total work-load. We indicated that at a certain stage the registration of these documents should be changed from a chronological to a diversified character. This not only serves the purpose of easy identification of important items of work which must be controlled if efficiency and economy were desired, but also offered a ready means

of supervision on the bulk of the important work of the unit by senior officials.

(ii) *Organizational Issues.*

We have generally found that much of the confusion in organizational matters arises from the fact that duties are allotted on a composite basis making it possible for the officials at the level of the primary unit of work to concentrate one type of work at the expense of another. As far as practicable we have tried to form basic units of work on the consideration that they should carry out predominantly unified types of duties so that they could not disregard one if there was greater pressure to dispose of the other. This reform was specially introduced in one of the supply organizations for finalisation of contracts. It was observed that by combining purchase and finalisation work the official in charge of the primary unit gave greater attention to the purchase work as it was of an immediate consequence. The lack of proper attention to the finalisation work resulted in a large amount of final payments to suppliers being held up which ultimately reacted on the prices offered for stores in response to tenders. The creation of a separate Finalisation Wing with its own primary units of work is likely to result in improvement in the payment of final bills.

(iii) *Bulking of Indents.*

A purchase organization normally bulks in indents with a view to getting most favourable prices for the largest possible quantities that it undertakes to purchase. It is however necessary that this intention should be followed by carefully laying out the procedure by which bulking becomes an automatic process. It was observed in a supply organization the bulking was being left to the initiative of the lowest official. A procedure was designed, which involved registration of indents in a diversified form, designing of cards for bulking and suggestions for drawing up a time-schedule for receipt of various types of stores, progressive standardisation of indenting vocabulary etc. etc.

(iv) *Applications for Allotment of Residential Accommodation.*

It is one of the interesting features of work in offices that sometimes information is called for which is not directly required or necessary for the purpose of the objective with which the organization is charged. We found that in one of the organizations dealing with allotment of government residence, the existing procedure stipulated that every government employee, even if he were already in occupation of government accommodation, should submit an annual application giving all the relevant particulars. This is no doubt necessary when the application is submitted for the first time, but the important purpose of getting this information annually was to enable the organization concerned to revise the rent owing to changes that might occur in the interval in the emoluments of the tenant. It was suggested that it would be enough if information was obtained for changes in respect of emoluments as they affected the recoverable rent. Under the existing procedure the changes called for in annual applications were categorised, classified and put into many registers and this process was repeated every year though no substantial change had occurred in the particulars of many tenants. In place of existing registers the system of card indices

has been suggested which would eliminate the necessity of the annual re-writing of registers and also accelerate the process of allotment,

(v) Sometimes the existing Rules and Regulations governing the conduct of business, result in uneconomic procedures of work because the circumstances under which the Rules were originally framed have completely altered. An instance of this was found in the organization which dealt with allotment of Government residences. This was the provision for allowing the tenant of a Government residence an *option* to ask for a change of residence. This led to a considerable amount of infructuous work without commensurate benefit to the tenants, *since* extensive case-studies showed that in about 75% of the cases, changes in residence offered in accordance with the preferences exercised by the tenants themselves, were not being accepted by them. This was because the existing Rules permitted the tenant to repeat his request for a change even if he had earlier refused the offer made in response to his own request. The only penalty he incurred was that he could not repeat the request for a period of six months. This provision in the Rules actually accentuated the tendency to apply for change of residence irrespective of the genuine needs of the tenants and incidentally added considerably to the cost both in terms of volume of work involved and the loss of rent as a result of quarters remaining vacant in the process of accommodating the variety of requests for change.

An acceptable suggestion made was that the option for change should be restricted to cases based on economic or other compelling grounds, *e.g.*, distance, lack of educational and other facilities, health grounds, etc. Accordingly, it was suggested that Government residential accommodation be clearly demarcated into various territorial zones within which facilities of the type referred to above would not be materially different. After this the option of 'change' could be restricted to change from one zone to another only. Secondly, to ensure elimination of capricious requests for 'change' it was agreed that failure to accept the change offered in response to the tenant's request should result in his forfeiting his right to a 'change'.

(vi) *No Objection Certificate.*

Another interesting example of work simplification is the procedure for dealing with requests from employees for a No Objection Certificate. Before payment of Pension or Provident Fund is sanctioned, the employee is required to produce a certificate that no rent dues are outstanding against him in respect of any of the Government residence he may have occupied in the past. To be able to furnish this certificate the organization concerned had to search through a large number of rent cards, collect all the rent cards in respect of houses occupied by the employee concerned at any time in the past, scrutinise them, effect outstanding recovery if any and then issue the certificate. Since 'rent cards' had necessarily to be maintained 'house wise' and their number is very large, a search for all the rent cards relating to houses occupied by a particular person, was a very laborious process which resulted in considerable delay in the issue of 'No Objection Certificate'. An evident solution which readily suggested itself was the maintenance of occupant-wise cards (or personal ledger accounts) *in addition* to the house-wise rent cards, which for valid accounting reasons could not be dispensed with. But the maintenance of such cards *in addition* to the rent cards was likely to result in an almost doubling of the effort necessitating the

additional employment of about hundred persons. This was considered incommensurate with the percentage of defaulters which constituted hardly 5% of the total number of tenants. An acceptable solution was found in this, that every time a new rent card was opened for a person who had shifted from an earlier Government residence the distinctive number of the old rent card was jotted down on the new rent card to facilitate back reference if and when necessary. To eliminate the need for back reference, a suitable table was suggested to be superscribed on the rent cards themselves so that any arrears of rent relating to the earlier house could be carried forward to the new rent card.

(vii) Utilization of Personnel.

An illustration of high cost personnel being utilised on low cost jobs because of defective procedures of work was found in an organization dealing with grant of scholarships. Under the existing method, applications on first receipt were made into convenient bundles and passed round the various Sections. Each Section Officer in his turn scrutinised all the applications in a bundle to pick out those dealt with in his Section and passed the rest on to other Section Officers. This procedure of sorting was entrusted to senior supervisory staff. An acceptable solution to speedier and less expensive sorting was found in prominently superscribing on the prescribed form of application, a check table in which the applicant could indicate the necessary particulars such as the State of Domicile etc. which formed the basis of work distribution in the organization. In this way sorting could be effected at the very stage of receipt by low cost 'sorters'.

(viii) Work-content of Jobs.

An interesting illustration of methods analysis leading to reduction of work-content of jobs was found in a unit of work charged with accounting work ancilliary to the grant of scholarships. One of the items of work in this unit was the compilation of a list of students awarded scholarship arranged State-wise/caste-wise/institution-wise. Under the existing procedure, this was compiled from a Register in which relevant entries were being ledgerised. The basic record from which this posting was made was a copy of the Bills sent to this Unit by the Units dealing with the award of scholarships. This annual posting involved a lot of effort. As a result of study of a large number of copies of the bills which formed the basis of posting it was suggested that if the object of maintenance of the Register was only to prepare a classified compendium of awards, it would be much more easily and effectively done if the copies of the bills themselves could be sorted out and classified instead of being posted into Ledgers. This was actually tried out in one working season and found to result in a speedier disposal of work with much less effort.

STATEMENT 'A'

JOB DESCRIPTION SHEET

Job No. _____ Frequency of Occurrence: _____

Section _____ Description of Job:—*Regularisation of Delivery Period with/without liquidated damages.*

S. No.	Constituent Operation	Performer	S.F. if any	C.R.	Remarks
1.	Receipt of file in the Finalisation Section (with indenter's report regarding loss suffered) or after the period specified in the provisional extension of D.P. for sending such report.	L.D.C.			
2.	Registration in diversified receipt register, distribution of file to dealing clerks, according to standing order issued by the Supervisor with the approval of the Officers. (The Supervisor to check registration and distribution weekly to ensure compliance).	L.D.C.			
3.	Receipt of file, entry in diversified case register ; examination of relevant documents (and simultaneous filing up and referencing of revised form W.S.B. 150).	U.D.C.			
4.	Checking of entries in form W.S.B. 150 and submission to A.D.	Supervisor.			
5.	Sample scrutiny of entries in form W.S.B. 150, recording of recommendations/decisions regarding levy of liquidated damages, marking to Control Officer where necessary.	A.D.			
6.	Recording orders on the file and submitting case to D.D.G. where necessary.	Cont. Officer.			
7.	On receipt back of file, perusal and return to office.	A.D.			

S. No.	Constituent Operation	Performer	S.F. if any	C.R.	Remarks
8.	Noting in case register, preparation of draft amendment letter and resubmission of file.	U.D.C.			
9.	Scrutiny of draft and approval.	A.D.			
10.	Cutting of stencil and return to U.D.C.	Steno/Typist.			
11.	Comparison of stencil and submission to A.D. for signature ; indicating on stencil the number of copies required.	U.D.C.			
12.	Signature on stencil and return.	A.D.			
13.	Despatch of above to Duplicating Section.	L.D.C.			
14.	Preparation of copies and return to Section.	Duplicating Section.			
15.	On receipt of fair copies submission to A.D. of the number of copies requiring his signature.	L.D.C.			
16.	Signature on copies and return.	A.D.			
17.	Despatch of letters, entry in diversified register and the register of amendment letters and return of file to dealing clerk.	L.D.C.			
18.	Docketting of letter issued noting disposal in case register, entering amendment in the original acceptance of tender and putting up file for despatch to the Unit concerned with further action.	U.D.C.			
19.	Initialling the amendment in the original Acceptance of tender and signing the note on the file.	Supervisor.			
20.	Despatch of file to the Unit concerned and of one copy of transfer challan to the Registration Unit.	L.D.C.			

STATEMENT 'B'

JOB DISTRIBUTION SHEET

Description of Job :—Regularisation of Delivery period with/without liquidated damages

Control Officer	A.D.	Supervisor	U.D.C.	L.D.C.	Typist	Remarks
6. Receipt of file, passing of orders, marking to higher officers, where necessary.	5. Sample scrutiny of entries in form WSB 150 recording of recommendation/decision regarding levy of liquidated damages, marking to Control Officer, where necessary.	4. Checking of entries in form WSB 150 and submission to A.D.	3. Receipt of file, entry in diversified case register; examination of relevant documents.	1. Receipt of file. 2. Diversified registration and distribution to dealing clerks.	10. Cutting of stencil and return to U.D.C.	
	7. Perusal of file received back from higher officer.	19. Initialling the amendment in original Acceptance of Tender and signing on file.	8. Receipt of file, noting in case register, preparation of draft amendment letter and submission.	13. Receipt of stencil and despatch to Duplicating Section.		
9. Approval of draft amendment letter.		11. Comparison of stencil and submission to A.D. for signatures; indicating on stencil the number of copies required.	15. Receipt of copies and submission to A.D. for signature in signature pad.			
12. Scrutiny, signature on stencil.			17. Receipt back of file, despatch of copies and return of file to dealing clerk.			
16. Signature on copies.		18. Receipt of file, docketing, noting disposal in case register and entering amendment in the original A.T. and putting up file for despatch to Unit concerned.	20. Despatch of file to Unit concerned and one copy of challan to Registration Unit.			

STATEMENT 'C' TIME SHEETS

Description of Operation/Step
Constituent sub-steps
Name of performer
Designation
Nature of duties performed by him in the past

No. of items given	Time of		Time taken	Breaks if any		Remarks
	Commencement	Completion		Duration	Reason	

Designation/Signature (s) of presiding officer(s)

WORK DISTRI

Description of Job	Total Man Hours	Section Chief	M. H.	Analyst	M. H.	Case Director
Issue certificates Class 127A	121	Policy review recommendations Field review and sign recommendations	17 6	Preparing recommendations for actions	19	Checking drafts for form Checking final statements for form
Issue certificates Class 127B	54	Reviewing and signing	7	Checking for form Re-checking approvals	7 2	Preparing approval notices
General Public Inquiry Service	19	Interviewing callers	2	Preparing daily report Interviewing callers Dictating replies to special inquiries	6 2 1	Interviewing callers
Furnishing case data to compliance division	24	Reviewing	2	Checking for form Gathering data	1 1	Gathering data Dictation Revising
Administration	34	Confer with pers. office Conference Preparing Budget request	6 4 3	Staff conference	2	
War effort and employee welfare	17	Making speeches	1	Making car pool arrangements Keeping credit unit records	2 3	Arranging Blood Bank Writing Army Newsletter
	269		48		46	

BUTION CHART

M. H.	Correspondence Clerk	M. H.	Head Stenos Pool	M. H.	Steno in Pool	M. H.
6	Dictating acknowledgements	16	Proofreading acknowledgements	6	Checking addresses	6
10	Signing acknowledgements	4			Type answers, drafts, statements	20
					Take dictation	11
13	Tabulating	11	Proofreading Selecting field applications Type '51' forms	2 3	Checking applications for address Changes Numbering applications	4 2
1	Interviewing callers	2	Assembling materials	3	Interviewing callers	1
	Preparing cumulative report	1				
5	Tabulating and checking figures	3	Check field men's names Laying out reports Code into requests	2 2 2	Tabulating data	1
	Posting attendance records	3	Hearing grievances Trg. new emp.	1 3		
	Preparing administrative reports	2	Proofread steno work	10		
1			Bond selling records	3	Handling arrangements for girls' baseball team.	3
1			Collect Hosp. payments Collect health payments	2 1		
42		42		43		48

EDITORIAL NOTES

Under Shri *S.B. Bapat's* editorship for more than three years, this Journal has established its pre-eminence as a forum for discussion of problems of public administration in this country. The objectives have been clearly laid down, and the course set; and the utility of the Journal to students and practitioners of public administration—and to the wider public interested in public affairs—is no longer in doubt. The present Editor has thus a somewhat easier task. It will be his endeavour to maintain the standard set by his predecessor.

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There has been a remarkable administrative growth since Independence. With the extension of governmental activities, numerous new agencies have come into existence, ranging from the Planning Commission at the Centre to the Village Level Worker in the countryside. There has been a wealth of experimentation, for instance, in the form of management of public enterprises. In addition, there has been a great volume of small changes in the pre-Independence administrative organisation, often in the shape of improvisations and adaptations, or shifts of emphasis from one function to another, for example, from law and order to those of economic development and social welfare. Underlying the changes, there has, no doubt, been a sense of direction, determined by a well-defined political ideology; and the cumulative effect of the changes has been considerable. Yet, it remains true that, during the first few years, the immediate objective and the individual situation determined the nature of the change, or the character of the new agency that was brought into being. Latterly, however, increasing thought has been given to the basic concepts and philosophy underlying the Indian administrative system, and much rethinking on the more fundamental issues has been in evidence. To give but a few examples, a great deal of thought is being given to the accountability of semi-autonomous State enterprises to Parliament, and their relationship with the Central Executive; the problem of democratic decentralization of authority beyond the level of district administration has been subjected to a comprehensive examination by the Balvantray Mehta Study Team on Community Development and National Extension Service; and a Commission of Enquiry (the Pay Commission) has been set up to examine, among other matters, the *principles* which should govern the structure of emoluments and conditions of service of the Central Government employees. Qualifications for recruitment to

the public services have been re-examined by another committee; there has been fresh thinking on the importance and the nature of the training of public servants; and the place of the scientist, technologist, economist and statistician in the administrative structure is being re-determined. The issue of Administrative Tribunals is being raised not at the academic level as in the past, but as a matter of practical importance; and a public discussion is in progress as to the precise content of the accepted idea of political neutrality of civil servants.

With more than ten years of practical experience, it is right that there should be fundamental rethinking on the basic problems of public administration, and this Journal will be glad to further this process by lending its columns for a critical discussion of those problems.

—*L.P. Singh*

RECENT TRENDS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN INDIA

I. Services Organisation, Recruitment and Training

The trends towards strengthening and stabilisation of the existing administrative services, creation of new functional cadres, broad-basing of training programmes and improvement of recruitment procedures continued. In order to ensure that there is no deficiency in any of the State cadres by the end of the Second Plan, the Central Government has fixed the minimum quota for annual recruitment to the Indian Administrative Service at 70. About 45 out of the 102 new recruits to the I.A.S., under the recent Special Emergency Recruitment on the basis of the open competitive examination held in December 1956, will undergo a training course beginning in Simla early in June; the remaining will proceed for field training. In view of their previous experience, the period of training will be shorter (about 6 months) as compared to that of direct recruits selected annually from the age category 21-24.

The Central Government has also approved of a proposal to set up a National Academy of Administration. In addition to giving professional training to direct recruits to the I.A.S. and the refresher course at present provided at the I.A.S. Staff College, Simla, the Academy will provide a common 'background and foundational' course for direct recruits to the All-India and Class I Central (non-technical) Services. It would be for the first time that the direct recruits to the Class I Central (non-technical) services will be put through a foundational course of study and training designed to develop in them an appreciation of the constitutional, economic, social and administrative framework within which they are to function. The fact that the foundational course will be common will help to develop among recruits to different services a feeling of belonging to a common public service, and a broadly common outlook. In due course, the separate training programmes for the various services also may be concentrated in this National Academy of Administration. The Academy may also arrange short courses, seminars, conferences etc. lasting for a week to a month for the benefit of more senior officers—ordinarily those with about 15 years of service. These courses may deal with the higher problems of government or with special subjects, for instance, Planning, Fiscal Policy, Social Security, Inter-Departmental Co-ordination, etc., suitable for senior officers. Some of these courses may be so arranged as to be useful for technical as well as administrative officers.

The trend towards the creation of functional cadres has received further impetus with the sanctioning of new cadres of a Central Information Service for manning posts in the Press Information Bureau, News Division of All India Radio and the Publications and Research and Reference Divisions of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting; and a Supply Service and an Inspection Service under the Director-General of Supplies and Disposals. A Central Health Service is in the process of being constituted; rules have been framed for the proposed Central Legal Service, and

recruitment is under way for the Central Industrial Management Pool. Selection of officers for the Central Administrative Pool has been finalised and the Pool is expected to formally come into being in near future. A Cabinet Committee is at present working out the blue-prints of Economic and Statistical Services. The Central Government is preparing an all-India panel of names for all fresh appointments of High Court Judges; the new policy is designed to ensure high quality of personnel recruited, as also to help in ensuring that at least a third of the total number of judges of High Courts come from outside the State concerned.

In *Andhra Pradesh*, the State Government has constituted the personnel of the Treasury and Accounts organisations in the Andhra and Telengana areas, (except those of the Accounts organisation in the Electricity Department), into separate gazetted and non-gazetted services with uniform scales of pay and other conditions of service. The new gazetted service will be known as the "Treasury and Accounts Service" and non-gazetted service as the "Treasury and Accounts Subordinate Service".

Recent discussions in Parliament on the annual report of the U.P.S.C. centred round the desirability of improving the educational standards of candidates taking competitive examinations, importance of enlarging the scope of public service commissions to cover recruitment to the autonomous public sector and the need for caution in the use of the personality test.

Following the lead given by the Centre in the matter of the liberalisation of recruitment policies, the *Kerala* Government decided to throw open public appointments to ex-convicts. The State Government holds that such ex-convicts as by their disciplined life in prison and by their subsequent conduct, have proved that they have been completely reformed, should not be discriminated against for purposes of appointment to Government service on grounds only of their previous conviction. The principles on the basis of which these appointments are to be made have been laid down in consultation with the State Public Service Commission.

II. Manpower Planning

Suitable machinery for the organisation of manpower studies (mentioned in the last review) and for the consideration of manpower problems is being gradually built up in the States. Almost all the State Governments and the Central Ministries have designated Manpower Officers. Some States have set up Cabinet Committees on Manpower; others have established Officers' Committee; and some have set up both. The Officers' Committees are in the nature of steering groups on which all departments concerned with manpower problems are represented. There also exists at the official level, a steering committee at the Centre, and a Cabinet Committee on Manpower.

Increasing attention is now being paid to manpower planning for the Third Plan and for long-term needs. The Perspective Planning Division of the Planning Commission is making some 'normative' studies to work out broad dimensions of long-term manpower requirements for major sectors of the national economy. The Planning Commission has agreed that training programmes during the remaining period of the Second Plan

should be isolated and not subjected to the normal pruning applied to other programmes. The Commission has also suggested to State Governments to prepare estimates of manpower requirements, where shortages are apprehended, on an *ad hoc* basis so that top priority may be given to increase training facilities correspondingly during the remaining years of the Second Plan. The overall trend thus is to relate expansion of training facilities to manpower needs for the Third Plan.

The First Conference of State Manpower Officers, which was convened in New Delhi on April 8 and 9 by the Central Manpower Directorate, considered the problem of general approach to the assessment of requirements for and the sources of different categories of trained personnel for the Second and Third Plans; it also reviewed the progress made in the different States in regard to the establishment of manpower organisations, studies and training programmes. It recommended that the progress of training programmes should be reviewed at regular intervals to ensure their timely execution; studies should be undertaken in all States for assessing manpower requirements during the Third Plan and early action taken for stepping up training programmes, and the State Manpower Officers, who are usually senior officers with other heavy responsibilities, should be assisted by a whole-time junior officer, where necessary. The Conference also recommended that State Governments should send, to the Central Manpower Directorate, a report every year on the progress of manpower planning; the manpower data thus collected will be shifted in the Directorate and put up to the Cabinet Committee on Manpower.

Efforts in the direction of the utilization of trained technical personnel at present abroad are being stepped up. The National Register Unit of the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research has recently published four directories which contain valuable and comprehensive reference data regarding Indian scientists, technologists, engineers, medical personnel, business administrators, accountants and others in foreign countries. More such directories will be issued as further information is collected about Indians abroad. The purpose of the directories is to assist Government departments, industrial organisations, educational and technical institutions, etc., in finding highly qualified personnel, and also to help in the proper utilization of the training and experience of persons with high foreign qualifications. The Unit has also circulated, both to individuals and employers, index cards for registration of scientific and technical personnel in India; employment exchanges are assisting in the filling up and collection of these cards.

III. Salary Scales, Conditions of Work, etc.

In a recent judgment relating to the decisions of the Wage Board, constituted under the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service) and Miscellaneous Provisions Act, 1955, the Supreme Court has clarified certain background issues about the general concept of Minimum Wages. The Court has emphasised that whereas the bare minimum of subsistence wage would have to be fixed irrespective of the capacity of the industry to pay, the statutory minimum wage postulates the capacity of the industry to pay. In Kerala, the Pay Revision Committee, presided over by *Shri R. Sankaranarayana Iyer*, a retired High Court Judge, has recommended revised and

unified pay scales for gazetted and non-gazetted officers in the whole state. It has suggested that dearness allowance should be linked to the cost of living index. An improvement in the present minimum scale of Rs. 25-35 has also been suggested, while the maximum pay has been generally kept at Rs. 1,000. The Committee has also recommended measures for increasing efficiency, for avoiding discontent on account of stagnation, and for removing anomalies. The *Madhya Pradesh* Government has set up a Cabinet Sub-Committee to review the question of salaries and allowances paid to Ministers and Deputy Ministers, and the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Legislative Assembly in the State.

The question of affording suitable relief to pensioners has also attracted attention in recent months. While the Central Government is reported to be considering a proposal for increase in pensions of the retired civil servants who have obviously not benefited from the recent concessions, the *Assam* Government sanctioned, with effect from April 1958, an additional temporary increase of Rs. 10 p.m. in all civil pensions below Rs. 300, in addition to the existing rates of temporary increase admissible on small scale pensions.

Considering the hardship caused to families of non-gazetted Government servants who die while in service, due to delays in the settlement of their claims for compassionate gratuity or death-cum-retirement gratuity, the State Government of *Mysore* has authorised Heads of Departments to sanction an advance equal to two months' pay on the basis of the pay last drawn, subject to a maximum of Rs. 500, if the family concerned has been left in indigent circumstances and is in immediate need of financial assistance.

At the Centre, the welfare organisation, which is gradually coming up, with a Chief Welfare Officer in the Ministry of Home Affairs, has recently initiated an enquiry into the living conditions of Central Government employees; steps have also been taken to organise recreational facilities. The organisation will collect and maintain complete data about the name, nature of employment and salary of each employee; but data will be assembled about living conditions only on a sampling basis. The *Rajasthan* Government has decided to set up two separate staff Councils in respect of the Secretariat staff—one in respect of Ministerial staff and the other in respect of Class IV employees. The Councils will be advisory bodies to consider any of the matters relating to the conditions under which the members of staff are required to work. The Government of *U.P.* has decided to award tokens of appreciations and medals each year to Government servants for work of exceptional and outstanding character. For this purpose, a sum of Rs. 500 has been placed at the disposal of every Head of Department, except in certain cases.

In matters of employees' conduct, the Central Government proposes to amend the conduct rules to provide for action against employees even after retirement on grounds of negligence of duty or corruption. The State Government of *Mysore* has issued fresh instructions reiterating that Government servants cannot make representations through their relatives, non-officials, or members of political parties.

The *Jammu and Kashmir* Government has promulgated the J. & K. Civil Services (Disciplinary Proceedings Tribunal) Rules, effective from March 1, providing for the appointment of a Tribunal with a single member of the rank of a District and Sessions Judge or one who possesses qualifications under the State Constitution for being appointed as a judge of the High Court. The cases to be referred to the Tribunal shall be those (1) relating to Government Servants of gazetted rank in respect of matters involving corruption in the discharge of their official duties; and (2) all appeals or petitions to the Government against orders passed on charges of corruption and all disciplinary cases in which the Government proposes to revise original orders passed on such charges; but in the latter case the orders, etc., may not be referred to the Tribunal.

IV. 'O & M'

The drive towards economy and the trend towards administrative reorganisation are gradually stimulating rethinking of the basic concepts underlying the pattern of O & M work evolved in India during the last 3 years. The techniques of work study have been applied successfully to office organisation and management by the Special Reorganisation Unit of the Economy Division of the Union Ministry of Finance; an account of this pioneer work in India is given elsewhere in the *Journal*. A six-week course in Work Study was organised recently by the S.R.U., in co-operation with the Central O & M Division; it was attended by about 10 Section Officers. Instruction was imparted mainly by group discussions and practical assignments. Problems actually encountered by the S.R.U. in Work Studies conducted by it were given to the trainees as practical problems for finding a solution. A Committee of Officers, set up by the Central O & M Division, is at present engaged in a survey of the Pilot Section Scheme which was launched as an experimental measure in September 1956; the object of this scheme is to avoid unnecessary noting and movement of papers and to make Junior Section Officers directly responsible for disposal of work, unaided by any dealing Assistant.

The recent Report of the Estimates Committee on the functions and organisation of the Planning Commission has raised the question of the exact role of staff agencies. The Committee has observed that the Planning Commission is not just an advisory body but an additional authority to be reckoned with—a feeling which has grown in consequence of the present responsibilities of the Commission in matters of allocation of resources and fixation of priorities. The Committee is opposed to any further association of the Prime Minister and other Union Ministers with the Planning Commission; it feels that the co-ordination with the Cabinet can be maintained by a representative of the Commission attending the meetings of the Cabinet when a matter of interest to the Commission is to be considered. The Committee considers that part-time employment of officers of the Central Ministries in the Commission's office militates against freshness of outlook and independence of judgment. While appreciating the work of the C.O.P.P., the Committee is more favourably inclined towards the type of external evaluation at present undertaken by the Programme Evaluation Organisation of the Planning Commission.

The economy drive has resulted in a saving of Rs. 13.86 crores at the Centre, a portion of the saving having been effected by curtailment of the

existing schemes and abandonment of new projects. In *Andhra Pradesh*, in pursuance of the proposals of the Economy Committee, the State Government has decided that the number of departments in the Secretariat should be reduced by two and the posts of two Secretaries to Government and four Deputy Secretaries should be abolished. It has also decided to abolish the Social Welfare and Labour Department and to combine the Departments of Health and Local Administration. The *Assam* Government has re-allocated the subjects as between the various Secretariat Departments on the basis of 'coherent missions'. The list of subjects has been reviewed so as to constitute new Departments, each dealing with a closely allied group of subjects. The review has also led to a more equal distribution of work loads. It has also decided that as far as possible, one Secretary should report to one Minister only. In the past one Secretary had often to serve as many as three or four Ministers. The *Assam* Government has also appointed a Cabinet Sub-Committee under the chairmanship of the State Chief Minister to ensure high-level attention to improvement of administration. In *Kerala*, the Secretary, Administrative Reforms Committee, has been asked to examine and report on the possible measures of economy in the administration. A Sub-Committee, consisting of the Chief Minister and the Finance Minister, has been constituted to consider the proposals submitted by the special officer and pass orders on them quickly.

At the Centre, the Ministry of Education is being reorganised to ensure better co-ordination, speedy and effective implementation of various educational schemes under the Second Five Year Plan, both in the State and Central spheres. The reorganised Ministry will have 8 Divisions. As a result of the reorganisation, educational Divisions dealing with the stages of education proper will not be burdened with executive functions and miscellaneous items of work. The three Divisions, viz. Elementary & Basic Education, Secondary Education and Higher Education & UNESCO will have specialised staff working mainly on developmental schemes, gathering technical knowledge and organising research which may be necessary for the implementation of the Plan schemes and for the formulation of subsequent plans. The Ministry has also recently set up a National Committee on Women's Education under the chairmanship of *Shrimati Durgabai Deshmukh*. The Committee's terms of reference include measures to make up the leeway in women's education at the primary and secondary levels as well as methods of encouraging a larger number of women to go into vocational trades.

V. Community Development and Local Government

With the approval of the revised programme by the National Development Council, Community Development enters into a new phase of expansion and stabilisation. The revised programme makes no distinction between the national extension service and community projects. The community development programme will now be divided into two stages, each lasting five years. During the first stage, the schematic block budget will be of Rs. 12 lakhs; and during the second, of Rs. 5 lakhs. A pre-extension period of one year will precede the first stage, primarily for purposes of commencing agricultural production programme. Instead of the entire rural area being covered by the end of the Second Plan, the last set of blocks will be allotted in October 1963. The Central Committee on Community

Development recently recommended a new pattern for the block development programme with the village panchayat, co-operative and school as the base, together with a statutory body at the block or district level with full responsibility for planning and implementing the programme. Action is also afoot to ensure that the implementation of the programme is not held up due to shortage of trained personnel. The Ministry of Community Development has started shortly a Central Institute of Study and Research in Community Development at Mussoorie; the Institute will hold short reorientation courses for key administrative and technical personnel engaged in the field of community development; Members of Parliament and of State Legislatures and public men may also participate in these courses. The Institute will later have a full-fledged research wing to examine practical problems.

In U.P. the State Government has abolished District Boards and promulgated an ordinance providing for the establishment of *Antarim Zila Parishads* (interim District Councils), which will combine the functions of district planning committees and district boards. In Madras, the Government has passed orders constituting District Advisory Committees to advise the Special Officers in regard to their respective district boards.

The Bombay Government has modified the constitution of the State Council for Panchayats to provide that the Deputy Minister for Village Panchayats will now be the Vice-Chairman and a lady member and a member of the Scheduled Castes interested in village panchayat work will also be nominated by Government on the Council. This will increase the number of non-official members from 19 to 21. The constitution of the Divisional Councils for Panchayats has also been amended to provide for the nomination of one member of the Backward Classes conversant with the working of village panchayats. Legislation is being undertaken to unify the different laws relating to village panchayats in force in the State.

At the Centre, the draft Model Act for Gram Panchayats has been finalized and printed. The draft Model of the Municipal Act is under print and the draft Model of the District Board Act is still under preparation.

A recent survey of the borrowings and investments of local authorities, made by the Reserve Bank of India, has revealed that the percentage of total investments to total debt has arisen from 77 per cent in 1951 to 83 per cent in 1957. Total income of all local authorities included in the survey amounted to Rs. 99 crores in 1956-57 and total expenditure to Rs. 100 crores, showing an increase of Rs. 31 and 47 crores respectively since 1951-52. Taxes formed 32 per cent, borrowings 14 per cent and Government grants 5 per cent of the income in 1956-57. "Administration" formed 12 per cent of the total expenditure in 1956-57; water supply, drainage, etc., 19 per cent; and roads and buildings, 7 per cent. The Survey covered 54 local authorities consisting of 39 municipalities, 11 city corporations and 4 port trusts.

A recent significant development in the field has been the convening of a National Conference on Community Development at Mount Abu from May 20 to 24. This Conference, which, in effect, was the Seventh Development Commissioners' Conference, also included representatives from all

development departments of State Governments and from all Central Ministries concerned with development work.

The Fifth Report of the Programme Evaluation Organisation, on the working of the community development and the national extension service programmes, has revealed that the population covered by the community block is, on an average, 25 per cent higher than the prescribed figure; the number of villages covered by the *Gram Sevak* is also 25 per cent higher and its area of operation too large. It has been noticed that people's participation declines as the block-period moves towards its end. The shortage of block personnel continues and block development officers of a higher calibre than at present will be needed for the success of the revised programme. It recommended that stress should be laid on the development of extension work in fields besides agriculture, specialists should be relieved of administrative work, contact between the block specialist and the *Gram Sevak* should be developed and the procedure for making funds available to the block simplified.

INSTITUTE NEWS

Fourth Annual General Body Meeting

At the fourth annual meeting of the General Body of the Institute, held on April 5 at Sapru House, New Delhi, **Shri Jawaharlal Nehru** was unanimously elected President of the Institute for the year 1958-59. The meeting also passed the annual accounts and adopted the annual report, for the year 1957.

Elections to the Executive Council

As required under Rule 14(5) of the Rules of the Institute, elections to 8 vacancies in the membership of the Executive Council were held in February-March. The following persons have been elected to the Council for a period of 4 years.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| 1. Shri C. D. Deshmukh | Chairman, University Grants Commission. |
| 2. Shri V.T. Krishnamachari | Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission. |
| 3. Shri A.D. Pandit | Chief Commissioner, Delhi. |
| 4. Shri S. Ranganathan | Secretary, Ministry of Commerce and Industry. |
| 5. Prof. S.V. Kogekar | Principal, Fergusson College, Poona. |
| 6. Shri P.R. Nayak | Commissioner, Delhi Municipal Corporation. |
| 7. Shri N.H. Athreya | Director, Modern Management Council, Bombay. |
| 8. Shri Jai Prakash Jain | Department of Civil Aviation, Ministry of Transport & Communications. |

A New Editor for the I.J.P.A.

Shri L.P. Singh, I.C.S., Member-Secretary, Central Pay Commission, has been selected by the Executive Council of the *Institute* as the Editor of the *Indian Journal of Public Administration* in place of **Shri S.B. Bapat** who has joined the United Nations Secretariat. **Shri L.P. Singh** was Chief Secretary to the Government of Bihar from 1948 to 1956 and was appointed in September 1956 as Officer on Special Duty in the Union Ministry of Home Affairs to conduct an enquiry into the organisation etc. of the All-India and Central Services—a position which he still holds. **Shri Singh** has also been the Director of the Central Directorate of Manpower since its inception in November 1956.

Election of Honorary Treasurer

The Executive Council, at its meeting held on April 6, elected *Shri S. Ranganathan*, I.C.S., Secretary, Union Ministry of Commerce and Industry, as Honorary Treasurer of the *Institute* for a period of two years.

Election of Chairman and Co-optation of Members of the Executive Council

The Executive Council also re-elected *Shri V.T. Krishnamachari* as its Chairman and co-opted *Shri N.V. Gadgil*, *Shri G.L. Bansal* and *Shri L.P. Singh*, I.C.S., as members for the year 1958-59.

Essay Prize Competitions

Nine entries were received by the *Institute* for the Public Administration Essay Competition, 1957; the essays were scrutinised by a Committee of three Judges, consisting of Prof. Phillips Bradley, Head, Department of American History and Institutions, Indian School of International Studies, *Shri N.K. Sidhanta*, Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, and *Shri C.S. Venkatachar*, I.C.S. (retd.), formerly Secretary to President. The Judges considered that none of the essays merited the first prize (Rs. 1,000); and so two second prizes (each of Rs. 500) were awarded as follows :

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| (1) <i>Shri N.K. Bhojwani</i> , Secretary, Department of Parliamentary Affairs. | "The Problem of Administrative Tribunals." |
| (2) <i>Dr. Iqbal Narain</i> , Lecturer in Political Science, Agra College, Agra. | "Some Aspects of the Management of Public Enterprises." |

The prizes were handed over to the recipients by *Shri Jawaharlal Nehru*, the *Institute's* President, at the time of the Fourth Annual General Body Meeting on April 5, 1958.

The *Institute* is also glad to announce a second Essay Competition. The subjects for 1958 competition are : (a) Present-day Administrative Practices; (b) Problems in Public Administration; (c) Comparative Studies in Public Administration; (d) Historical Aspects of Public Administration; and (e) Problems in the Theory of Public Administration. The essay adjudged best will carry a prize of Rs. 1,000. A second prize of Rs. 500 may be awarded for the second best contribution.

The essay is to be submitted (in English) under a *nom de plume* on the outside, and should be of approximately 10,000 words. The full name and address of the competitor should be given on a separate sheet of paper and enclosed in a sealed envelope bearing the *nom de plume* on the outside. In assessing the essay, the Judges will consider both the substance and suitability for publication. The awards will be given at the Fifth Annual Meeting of the *Institute* to be held in April 1959. Closing date for the Competition is December 31, 1958.

Study Teams and Projects

The *Institute* has set up, in co-operation with the Town Planning Organization of the Ministry of Health, a joint Study Team on Deconcentration of Government Offices in Delhi. The problems to be studied include ;

(1) How controllable is the concentration or deconcentration of the Union's activities, overall or by particular functions? (2) What would be the specific effects of a given level of concentration or deconcentration upon (a) The Union Government, and (b) the planning entity, Delhi? (3) What should be public policy concerning the volumes or types of Union activities to be carried on in, or away from Delhi?

The descriptive study of the structure and functions of the various Ministries and departments of the Central Government, entitled 'The Organisation of the Government of India', will be published shortly by the Asia Publishing House, Bombay, on behalf of the *Institute* (price : Rs. 15).

The proceedings of the Seminar on Administrative Problems of State Enterprises in India, held in December last, have already been published by the *Institute* itself (price : Rs. 2.25); work has recently been started for the preparation of monographs on selected problems of public enterprises.

Conferences and Seminars

The Second Annual Conference of the members of the *Institute* was held at Sapru House, New Delhi, on April 5, in two sessions. The first session on 'The Pattern of Rural Government (from the Village to the District level)' was inaugurated by *Shri V. T. Krishnamachari*, Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission, and Chairman of the Executive Council of the *Institute*.

The session on 'Administrative Problems of State Enterprises' was inaugurated by *Shri Manubhai M. Shah*, Minister for Industry, Government of India.

A Seminar on 'Improving City Government' is being convened by the *Institute* at Bangalore in September next. It will be attended by representatives of Central and State Governments and municipal corporations and important local bodies, university professors, and other experts in the field. The agenda for the Seminar, which will be directed by *Shri P.R. Nayak*, I.C.S., Commissioner, Delhi, Municipal Corporation, will include : (1) Relations between the Executive and the Deliberative Agencies; (2) Finances and Functions; (3) Public Participation; (4) Development and Redevelopment of Cities.

First Regional Conference on Public Administration, Philippines

The First Regional Conference on Public Administration was held at Manila (Philippines) from June 7 to 21. The main objective of the Conference was to promote the adoption of appropriate and adequate administrative systems and practices intended to advance the economic and social development of the region. The agenda of the Conference included (1) Administration of economic and social planning and programmes (central and local governments); (2) Education, recruitment and training for the Public Service (central and local governments); and (3) Proposals for the creation of a permanent institution of public administration in the region.

The Government of India sent a delegation consisting of *Prof. V.K.N. Menon*, Director, *I.I.P.A.*, (Leader); *Prof. M.V. Mathur*, Head of the

Department of Economics, University of Rajasthan; and *Shri B.N. Tandon*, I.A.S., Under Secretary to the Government of India, Central Pay Commission. Prof. Menon also represented the International Institute of Administrative Sciences.

I.I.A.S. Round Table, Liege

As previously announced, the I.I.A.S. will hold its 1958 Round Table at Liege, Belgium, in the new Palais des Congres, from June 27 to July 3. The *Institute* will be represented at the Round Table by *Prof. V.K.N. Menon*, the Director; *Shrimati Dr. Seeta Parmanand*, M.P.; and *Shri R.C. Dutt*, I.C.S., Establishment Officer to the Government of India.

The Building Programme

The construction of buildings for the Institute's Offices, Library and the School have made further progress. The School is likely to start functioning with effect from October 23, by which time the buildings will be ready for occupation. The Government of India has also approved the construction of an Assembly Hall with sitting accommodation for nearly 600 persons.

Mysore Regional Branch

Dr. H. Dietmar, Consul-General for Federal Republic of Germany at Bombay, addressed on May 1, at Bangalore, the members of the Mysore Regional Branch on 'Administrative Structure of the Federal Republic of Germany'.



DIGEST OF REPORTS

ESTIMATES COMMITTEE, 1957-58, 10th and 15th Report (Ministry of Education and Scientific Research—Technical Education, Pt. I and II). *New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, iv, 60p. Rs. 0.95 n.P. and iv, 75p. Rs. 1.06 n.P., respectively.*

(A) 10th Report

I. Development of Technical Education

1. (i) The problems of inadequate financial provision, dearth of qualified teachers, absence of an integrated programme for vocational, trade apprentices and higher technical education and scanty equipment, have persisted throughout the last decade.

(ii) The tasks to be undertaken by Government in the field of science, engineering and technology during the Second Five Year Plan and in the future plans would be more arduous because of the rapid pace of development of modern science and technology and their industrial application.

(iii) Government should concentrate and direct their efforts on securing the best value for whatever meagre resources that are available for the real advancement of Science and Technology and for meeting immediate problems like the consolidation and strengthening of existing Institutions, provision of modern equipment, employment of well qualified staff and creation of more research facilities.

2. The future requirements should be carefully assessed and visualised before toning down the recommendations of the Engineering Personnel Committee in regard to the establishment of new institutions.

3. The number of engineers and other scientific and technical personnel in various categories turned out by various universities and institutions should be linked up with the Five Year Plans, as is the case in the U.S.S.R., China and other countries which have accepted State Planning as a policy of Government.

4. The analysis of the figures of percentages of distribution of pupils at the University stage indicates that there is hardly any change in the distribution pattern during the years 1951 to 1955. The percentage of pupils in engineering and technological education has been constant during the three financial years 1952-55, viz. 2.8%. The new institutions opened every year had just absorbed the increase in the number of students every year. The Education Ministry, in consultation with the Planning Commission should determine an ideal distribution pattern of studies, in the light of the national requirements. The increase in the number of engineering and technological institutions should be planned to meet the yearly requirements of pupils on the basis of this ideal distribution pattern.

5. (i) The newly set up Directorate of Manpower should keep the position of technical personnel constantly under watch with a view to ensuring that no shortage of trained personnel is experienced during the

Third and subsequent Plans, unlike the present situation during the Second Plan. The growing need for higher research in various branches of engineering and technology and provision of adequate and suitable personnel for this purpose should also not be neglected at any stage.

(ii) There is not any special justification for the continuation of the Directorate of Manpower under the Ministry of Home Affairs. The Directorate of Manpower is more concerned with the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research than with the Ministry of Home Affairs and the feasibility of its transfer to the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research may be examined.

6. (i) New institutions should be opened in such places as will ensure a reasonably even distribution of educational facilities throughout the country.

(ii) New institutions and courses should be established only when there is a real and urgent need for them.

(iii) The proper conditions for recognition, standards of equipment and qualifications of teachers may be strictly enforced in private engineering colleges and polytechnics which have either been established or are proposed to be established.

(iv) A uniform procedure of holding competitive entrance examinations with aptitude tests should be introduced for all technical and engineering institutions run by Government and Universities.

7. In view of the general shortage of technical personnel, the feasibility of increasing the age limit of retirement of such personnel should also be examined.

8. (i) In order to remove any feeling of discontent amongst the teaching staff and also to ensure that the best talent is attracted to the teaching profession, the question of salary scales in educational institutions, at present under consideration of the All India Council for Technical Education, may be finalised early and suitable steps taken to gradually improve the pay scales of teaching staff in engineering and technical institutions.

(ii) The Committee was told that decisions and steps taken by the Central Government in the matters of upgrading of pay scales in technical institutions were not generally followed up by State Governments. This amounted to their virtual nullification. The Central Government should either take the State Governments into confidence at the time of taking any major decision which would affect them or be prepared to assist them financially to the extent warranted by the reform in view of the States' meagre financial resources.

(iii) The feasibility of extending the retirement age of teachers, especially in engineering and technological institutions, may be examined to relieve their shortage.

(iv) Efforts may be made to secure the services of part-time teachers from the industry to relieve to some extent the existing shortage of qualified teachers. In view of the rapid development of scientific techniques that is constantly taking place, part-time training courses should have a definite

place in the development scheme of technical education in India. Government should examine the feasibility of utilising the facilities available in the degree colleges to run part-time training courses in technical subjects.

(v) Steps may be taken for extensive utilisation of sandwich courses in all branches of engineering and technological education so as to enable industrial workers to attain higher standards of proficiency.

(vi) The requirements of technical teachers in the Third Plan may be assessed right now and proper facilities developed so as to ensure regular supply of teachers for meeting the development requirements of the engineering and technical institutions from the very first year of the Third Plan.

9. (i) It is imperative to provide modern equipment to institutions conducting higher research; and the Ministry should assist such institutions to get the necessary amount of foreign exchange.

(ii) Efforts should be made to make buildings of engineering and technological institutions as economical as possible. The stress should be more on utility than on grandeur. The matter should be referred to the Buildings Team of the Committee on Plan Projects for advice about the possibility of having these buildings at a lesser cost.

II. All India Council for Technical Education

1. The All India Council for Technical Education has been functioning in purely advisory capacity for nearly twelve years and a stage has now come to review the entire position, with the object of ascertaining whether the progress of technical education cannot be accelerated by giving a statutory recognition to the Council and endowing it with greater administrative and executive functions.

2. (i) The feasibility of restricting the scope of the All India Council for Technical Education to the development of the subjects of Engineering, Technology and Architecture and Regional Planning may be examined. As regards the degree courses in Commerce, and in Management Studies, their development may be left to Universities and private enterprises.

(ii) The Council should not assume functions and responsibilities which are parallel to Universities; it should restrict its scope of activities to the functions laid down in the Resolution of its establishment.

3. (i) The feasibility of transforming the Boards of Technical Studies into specific industry-wise Boards may be examined so that the needs, problems and requirements of each industry are high-lighted.

(ii) Government may also examine the feasibility of abolishing the Regional Committees and devolving their functions upon the respective State Boards of Technical Education.

III. Administrative Staff College

The monthly fees, of Rs. 800 per student, and *per capita* expenditure of Rs. 1,100 per month, charged in the Administrative Staff College, Hyderabad, are on a high side. Efforts should be made to bring down the cost of training in the College to a reasonable amount and the question of withdrawing the participation by Government after a period of three years

should be examined in the context of other pressing needs of technical education in the country. In the meantime there does not seem to be any justification for making additional commitments in regard to the development schemes of the College; these should be left entirely in the hands of the private enterprise in the country.

IV. Practical Stipends Scheme

1. Practical training was provided only to 6% and 3% of the total number of graduates and diploma-holders respectively passing out of the engineering technical colleges, during the years 1950 to 1956. There is no progress from year to year. Government should review the entire position in regard to the working of the Scheme with a view to securing additional number of seats for graduates and diploma-holders. It should be the ultimate endeavour of Government to provide practical training to every student either before or after his passing out from engineering and technical institutions.

2. Out of the total amount of Rs. 23.64 lakhs spent on the Practical Stipends Scheme, the contribution made by the training establishments was only Rs. 4.67 lakhs, *i.e.* only 19 per cent of the total expenditure on the Scheme. Vigorous steps for enlisting more substantial support of the industry are called for.

3. The feasibility of more active participation by public undertakings in the practical stipends scheme should be examined in view of the gradual increase in the number of public undertakings.

(B) 15th Report

1. There should be some agency in the Government of India to take an overall and comprehensive view of the various aspects and stages of technical training imparted by the different Ministries, making it possible for trainees to derive the maximum benefits of the schemes without much additional cost. *Prima facie* there is scope for rationalisation, standardisation and integration of existing training facilities.

2. The feasibility of transferring the training programme of the Labour Ministry to the new Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, under the All India Council for Technical Education, to secure better overall co-ordination, should be examined.

ESTIMATES COMMITTEE, 1957-58. 20th Report (Budgetary Reform). *New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, iii, 49p.*

The main observations and recommendations of the Committee are as follows :

I. Improving the Present Form and Content

(a) General

- (1) Great changes have taken place in foreign countries in the concept of Government budgets and financial administration. In under-developed countries, the budget has become an

instrument of economic development and a powerful tool for carrying out social objectives; and a weapon for stabilisation of economy in countries with high degree of industrial maturity. The size of the budget of the Government of India has been steadily increasing and is of the order of Rs. 8,300 crores for 1958-59, if all transactions pertaining to Revenue, Loans and Capital and Debt Heads are included.

- (2) It is necessary that the Government should continuously review the budgetary procedures and practices so that while, on the one hand, they do not lag behind the advances made in other countries, on the other, they take into account the special features, economic and otherwise, obtaining in this country.
- (3) It would be desirable for a proper understanding of the budget if the new items of expenditure are shown separately from the standing charges and in a separate section within a Demand for Grant both in Part III where details are given and in Part II where the abstract is given, instead of their being shown in the Explanatory Memorandum or by thick letters in Demands for Grants.
- (4) For proper budgeting and for a proper appreciation of the justification for expenditure provided for in the budget, it is necessary that lump sum entries should not ordinarily find a place in the Budget, and, if for some reasons, this is inevitable, at least the broad sub-divisions of the proposed entries together with full justification therefor should be given in the budget documents.
- (5) The practice in U.K., under which the entire cost of a service is shown by means of a foot-note, in addition to the items of expenditure for which a particular Ministry or Department is directly accountable, may with advantage be adopted in India.
- (6) It would be desirable to have at one place a list of all contributions paid by the Government of India to international bodies together with brief details as to their nature, purpose, etc.

(b) *Plan Expenditure*

- (1) It would be a distinct advantage if the Plan itself could indicate (against the various projects which might be serially numbered, *e.g.* in order of priority, etc.) the requirements of funds for each of the 5 years of the Plan. It would also be desirable to indicate these in the budget documents, together with the allocation, actual expenditure, trends etc.
- (2) It is to be hoped that it would be possible to show at least from 1959-60, plan expenditure and estimates separately from

non-plan expenditure and estimates within the Demands for Grants and other documents accompanying the Budget, in the budget documents.

- (3) It would be desirable to present a separate statement, at the time of the Budget, giving a review of the Plan expenditure and estimates both for developmental and non-developmental purposes, and classified under Revenue and Capital.

(c) Public Enterprises

- (1) (i) The Union Government would be spending over Rs. 500 crores during the Second Plan period on industrial enterprises in the public sector and the future investment in such enterprises is expected to be quite heavy. The impact of these enterprises on the national economy would be significant. It would, therefore, be necessary for Parliament to take into account the activities of all the State enterprises while approving the budget. (ii) Industrial undertakings should prepare a performance and programme statement for the budget year together with the previous year's statement and it should be made available to Parliament at the time of the annual budget. (iii) These bodies might also be encouraged to prepare business-type budgets which would be of use to Parliament at the budget discussion. (iv) Their latest accounts and balance-sheets as well as the annual reports should also be made available to Parliament at the same time.
- (2) The separate budget volume for each Ministry and Department, incorporating the budget and portions from Explanatory Memoranda and Annual Reports, (referred to in III-B below) should also include a separate chapter containing the above information and documents in respect of all industrial undertakings which are related to the Ministry concerned.
- (3) It would be desirable to bring out a consolidated volume containing the documents mentioned above for all the statutory bodies and private limited companies of Government, containing also an appreciation of their working and net results.
- (4) To facilitate the understanding of all the activities of the public enterprises it would be desirable that they should have a common financial year, namely, the same as that of the Government.

(d) Loans and Grants to States

A separate statement, giving an up-to-date list of loans and grants made and those proposed to be made to States, explaining their purpose, their utilisation in the past and the benefits that have accrued or would accrue from the expenditure by the States of such loans and grants, the broad details of schemes for which they have been made, etc., should be brought out along with the budget.

(e) *Defence Estimates*

It is felt that the form of the Defence Service Estimates requires to be completely reviewed so as to show separately expenditure relating to various units, institutions, inter-Service Organisations, etc., and that they should contain more information than at present, consistent with the requirements of the security of the country. Such a review would have to be undertaken by the Ministries of Finance and Defence in consultation with the Chiefs of Staff.

III. The Basic Budgetary Reforms

(a) *Performance-cum-Programme Budgeting*

- (1) At present the budget documents invariably do not contain data on physical targets and accomplishments of various budget allocations and under various schemes, at any rate, to the extent necessary for assessing expenditure in terms of services planned for and actually rendered. The Explanatory Memoranda no doubt give broad details of expenditure schemes but even they do not enable a proper appreciation of the expenditure to be made. Further, the annual reports of the Ministries, which contain considerable information relating to the working of the Ministry and the schemes undertaken by them, do not also attempt any exposition of the expenditure in terms of the physical targets or accomplishments. It is desirable that programmes should be clearly correlated with the budget or revised estimates and performance with expenditure in the budget documents and particularly in the Annual Reports of the Ministries.
- (2) The performance-cum-programme system of budgeting would be ideal for a proper appreciation of the schemes and outlays included in the Budget, especially in the case of large-scale developmental activities. The performance budgeting should be the goal which should be reached gradually and by progressive stages without any serious budgeting dislocation. It is to be hoped that the experiment towards performance budgeting on a selective basis in order to supplement the traditional budget would be expedited and that the 1959-60 Budget would contain concrete results of it at least in the case of selected Ministries or projects.

(b) *Re-arrangement of Budgetary Documents*

To give effect to the various suggestions made earlier it would be necessary to rearrange the budget documents suitably so that while on the one hand they focus attention on essentials such as programmes, activities and performance, at the same time they do not render administrative or appropriation control difficult. As a first step in this direction, the budget documents relating to a particular Ministry such as Demands for Grants, Explanatory Memoranda and the Annual Reports may be brought out in a single volume. This volume in respect of each Ministry may

be divided into suitable parts to facilitate a proper understanding and appreciation of the budget. The first part may divide the activities of the Ministry into broad objects and programmes of expenditure and might eventually correspond to the performance-cum-programme type of budgeting for each Ministry. The second part might give the items on which the expenditure in the budget is proposed. These need not be given in such detail as at present. For facility of administrative control and accounting the details which would be necessary might be included as an Appendix to the volume. This re-arrangement in the existing budget documents may be given effect to as early as possible.

(c) *Functional and Economic Classification of the Budget*

- (1) The budget is broadly divided into capital and revenue transactions. The classification followed for the purpose is stated to compare favourably with most advanced countries. A separate Book of Demands for Grants on capital accounts is brought out as one of the Budget Documents. In the re-arranged set-up of the Budget Documents a consolidated statement of capital transactions would still be necessary. But it would be advantageous if it could be split up into various types of capital expenditure, such as increase of assets, reduction of liabilities, investments, capital formation, etc., as also their net effect on the economy.
- (2) It is necessary that there should be some sort of a functional classification of Governmental expenditure so as to focus attention on the various functions of the Government and their relative importance. It would be necessary to broadly group the various activities of all the Ministries in such a way as would enable an understanding of the diverse activities of government on which expenditure is incurred by various organisations and Ministries.
- (3) For an economic classification to be really useful it would have to take into account the expenditure and proposed outlay on various functional activities in the entire country, *i.e.*, Central and State budgets, the autonomous and other Government undertakings and the private sector also. It is necessary therefore that a beginning should be made in analysing the State budgets and of the autonomous and other undertakings and that effective steps should be taken for the purpose.

(d) *The Financial Year*

- (1) The present financial year commences on the 1st of April and ends on 31st March. The suitability of the financial year to Indian conditions has necessarily to be determined by such considerations as administrative convenience, better predictability of revenues and efficient execution of budget. The present arrangement, due to the break of the monsoon in a month or two after the passing of the Budget, tends to result in a rush of expenditure towards the end of the financial

year; it also results "in waste of national manpower in that it ties down the nation's representatives nearly 750 in number at the Centre alone—first for a three months' session for the discussion and voting of the budget and then for another three months because of the onset of the monsoon, thus preventing them from touring their constituencies and meeting the public."

- (2) These and other difficulties can be overcome by changing the financial year to commence on the 1st of October. The monsoon months from June to August may in that case be utilised for the penultimate and final stages of the preparation of the budget. As the works season will almost be over by the time the preparation of the budget starts, the framing of the revised estimates can be done with a better degree of accuracy. The budget may be presented to Parliament in the latter half of August and voted by the end of September. Legislation, other than the finance, taxation and appropriation bills, unless it is of great urgency, should not be taken up in this session.

(e) *Pre-Budget Scrutiny and Post-Budget Sanction*

- (1) The nature of scrutiny that is exercised by the Ministry of Finance before the schemes are included in the budget varies with the type of scheme. It would appear especially in the case of new schemes which involve heavy expenditure that the pre-budget scrutiny is not always very thorough. It is necessary that the administrative ministries should submit their respective schemes to the Ministry of Finance for inclusion in the budget only when all relevant details necessary for having a sufficiently clear picture of a particular scheme have been worked out. For this purpose the prospective schemes should be processed throughout the year so that the rush at the time of the preparation of the budget is avoided. It is understood that in U.K. the pre-budget scrutiny is fairly detailed and schemes which are not approved are not included in the Budget. This practice of thorough pre-budget scrutiny could be adopted with advantage in this country and to that extent the post-budget scrutiny could be eliminated or at least reduced so as to prevent delay in execution of work.
- (2) Even though the budget might include provision for loans and grants to States as well as for various development projects, the financial sanctions thereof which are necessary for incurring expenditure are not issued until the schemes have been thoroughly scrutinised and found acceptable. While the issue of sanctions after the voting of the budget is understandable in the case of new projects, for reasons explained (earlier in the previous para), it creates unnecessary delays and difficulties in the case of continuing projects. It is necessary that a procedure should be evolved whereby the necessity of further sanction after the budget should be done away with and also whereby an assurance would be given to the various

authorities including the State Governments that in respect of funds provided for approved subjects, the unspent amount would be available in the next financial year.

III. Budget Discussion

- (1) It might be a distinct advantage both to Government and to Parliament if the Standing Finance Committee is revived. It might have the authority to scrutinise such new items of expenditure above a certain limit as the Government might place before it prior to their inclusion in the budget. The Committee may, however, be purely advisory and Government need not be bound to accept all its suggestions or its criticism. Even then it would provide an opportunity to Members of Parliament to study the proposals in their proper perspective and thus enable them to offer well-informed criticism on individual schemes in a manner which would not be otherwise possible in Parliament. Besides, it would also facilitate public participation in the drawing up of schemes for inclusion in the budget.
- (2) Even with the revival of the Standing Finance Committee, it would still be necessary to devise means to ensure that the budget discussion is effectively utilised by Parliament to express the popular will and to ensure in other ways that the country gets the best and most efficient use of its resources and of the expenditure being voted. One method by which the budget discussion could be made more well-informed would be for the Minister concerned himself to initiate discussion on demands concerning his Ministry, explain all relevant facts which are likely to be raised in discussion, and again reply to the discussion before the demands were voted. An innovation was made when the Second Five Year Plan was discussed by a number of Committees of the House, which discussed the various parts of the Plan and later presented their proceedings to Parliament. The procedure could perhaps be adopted with advantage for discussion of the Budget also, since it would enable various Members of Parliament to concentrate on certain Ministries, come into contact with the Ministers and officials and get all their doubts and grievances examined or resolved.

IV. Survey of National Economy

- (1) It is necessary that economic situation in the country should be analysed, related to objectives and proposals, and explained by Government experts in a manner which would enable the correct position to be understood and appreciated by all. The analysis should also explain the position in regard to foreign exchange, balance of payments, trade and commerce, production, national product and income, cost of living, imbalances in economy, world trends, etc. Such an analysis should be made available to Parliament sufficiently early to be utilised during discussions.

- (2) Definite steps should be taken by Government to improve the sources and methods for collection of statistical data which should form the basis of an assessment of the economic situation.
- (3) It is necessary that some uniform patterns should be adopted so that the statistical information by different agencies for different purposes does not contain discrepancies.
- (4) It is to be hoped that steps would be taken by the Economic Division of the Ministry of Finance to ensure the setting up or rationalisation of the existing machinery for the collection of reliable data for its interpretation, as also for proper co-ordination at all levels with various other bodies in the country in order to facilitate quick and efficient analysis of the economic situation. It would be desirable for Government to examine the machinery at the disposal of and the working of the Economists' Council in U.S.A. with a view to adapting them in India.

V. Miscellaneous

- (1) It is desirable that the Government should report to Parliament every time they go in for borrowing. Further, the details of individual borrowing might also be brought to the notice of Parliament both before going to the market and after.
- (2) It would be desirable if (i) amendments directly connected with changes in the tax rates, and (ii) major amendments which, though not directly and immediately connected with the tax proposals, have to be made in the sections of the Act which are so connected, only are included in the Finance Bill, leaving amendments of other description to be dealt with separately.

ESTIMATES COMMITTEE, 1957-58. 21st Report (Planning Commission). *New Delhi, Lok Sabha Secretariat, 88p.*

The main findings and recommendations of the Committee are :

I. Functions

1. Planning involves allocation of scarce resources, and consequently fixation of priorities; in a federal constitution, it presents special difficulties. Also, when it happens that the financial resources of the States are inelastic and they have to depend upon the Centre for financing a very large portion of their development programmes, very great importance is attached to the approval of the Planning body, as a pre-requisite to the release of funds by the Centre. In consequence, it is understandable that a feeling could grow that the Planning Commission was not just an advisory body but that it was an additional authority to be reckoned with which though not part of the ordinary machinery of the Government of India, decided every programme of work and whose decisions were to be carried out by all. The entire procedure now adopted should be reviewed, so that if any practice has grown, which lends support to this feeling, it could be rectified.

2. The utility to the State Governments and the Central Ministries of the role at present played by the Planning Commission in the annual and periodical allotment of finances, should be reviewed in the light of experience gained in the last two years. It should also be considered to what extent this function should be performed by the Planning Commission

and whether it should not be left to the Government themselves, rather than the Planning Commission, to concentrate on the evaluation of the current Plan and formulation of the future Plan. In this connection, the Committee feels that in normal circumstances this function should be performed by the Governments themselves, though in the present circumstances, considering the various difficulties, such as those relating to foreign exchange, etc., it might not be possible to exclude the association of the Planning Commission in the formulation of annual plans.

3. The procedure for approval of schemes for Central assistance should be so revised that the State Governments approach the Central Ministries concerned directly. The Ministries should take decisions on all such matters in consultation with the Planning Commission and the State Governments concerned. In case there is any difference of opinion between the Planning Commission and a Central Ministry the difference should be resolved by the Cabinet, and in case there is any difference between the Planning Commission and a State Government, it should be resolved by the National Development Council.

4. (i) All work in the Planning Commission should be organised primarily for the purpose of formulating a plan and advising on its implementation. The machinery of the Commission should not be made cumbersome by undertaking work which could be got done through other agencies. (ii) 'Central direction and co-ordination of public co-operation activities of the various agencies' and the sanction of grants-in-aid to those agencies are executive functions and the Planning Commission should be divested of this responsibility, which should be transferred to an appropriate Ministry of the Government of India.

II. Constitution

1. Even though the Planning Commission originally started as a body of full-time members working under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister, by a gradual process it has become a mixed body with the Cabinet Ministers forming nearly 50 per cent of its strength.

2. While the Prime Minister's formal association was absolutely necessary during the formative stages and while he would still have to provide the guidance and assistance to the Planning Commission so as to facilitate the success of planning, it is a matter for consideration whether it is still necessary for him to retain a formal connection with the Planning Commission. Similarly, it would also have to be considered whether it is necessary to continue the formal association of the Finance Minister and other Ministers of the Central Government with the Commission. The association of Ministers is justified mainly on the ground that it facilitates close consultation and co-ordination with the Ministries. This can, however, be effected by the Minister being invited to attend the meetings of the Commission when a subject with which he is concerned, is discussed. The co-ordination with the Cabinet can also be maintained by a representative of the Commission attending the meeting of the Cabinet when a matter of interest to the Commission is considered.

3. There is an anomaly in regard to the Planning Minister in that he has no secretariat. Further, he is not the Head of the Commission nor even the Deputy Chairman. If a member of the Commission who is not the

Head of the Commission, or even its Deputy Chairman could be its spokesman, it might be possible for this function to be performed by any Minister designated by the Prime Minister without being formally associated with the Commission or by any Member of Parliament who might be associated with the Commission.

4. The present anomalous position of the *de facto* member in the Planning Commission should be rectified. If the Planning Commission desires to get advice and assistance from a person, who is not able to become a whole-time member it could be so arranged that he is available for advice, if and when necessary, without making him a *de facto* member of the Commission.

5. The present arrangement of having the Cabinet Secretary to function also as Secretary of the Planning Commission is neither necessary for high-level contacts nor conducive to efficiency. It appears to leave very little time for the Cabinet Secretary to give adequate attention to the Planning Commission. Considering that the activities of the Commission should be planned and organised efficiently with the utmost co-ordination not only among its own divisions, but also with activities of a similar nature being carried on elsewhere, there should be a whole-time Secretary for the Planning Commission.

III. Office Organisation and Personnel

1. It is neither in the interest of efficiency of the work of the Planning Commission, nor fair to the officers themselves that they should be required to play a dual role by working part-time both in the Ministry and in the Planning Commission. Officers who are engaged in Planning should be free from the burden of day-to-day administration. Even though planning has to be done in close co-ordination with practical administration, it requires a freshness of outlook and independence of judgment which are difficult to secure if officers have to serve simultaneously both the Planning Commission and the administrative Ministries. Therefore, except when it is unavoidable, there should be full-time officers in the Planning Commission.

2. The strength of the various Divisions, Branches and Sections had been determined on an *ad hoc* basis in the light of experience gained and not according to any standards laid down. Even though the same yardstick that applies to the Secretariat staff may not apply to the Research personnel in the various Divisions and Sections of the Planning Commission, it should be possible to lay down standards of work to assess the number of persons required to deal with the work in hand. These standards may vary according to the type of the job to be done.

3. The post of Adviser (Transport) may be abolished and the Commission should, whenever transport problems are considered, draw upon the services of specialists from the Transport Ministry and the Railway Ministry as well as of persons who have special knowledge of transport problems in the country.

4. Even though the Public Management Studies Section has been engaging itself in some activities, it has not been very useful for the discharge of the main functions of the Planning Commission. Studies required on the subject of public management, could be got done through other agencies

like the Indian Institute of Public Administration and I.M.R.U. and it is not necessary to keep a section in the Planning Commission to do this kind of work. The studies of this unit should be so organised that it will facilitate the formulation of plans in regard to the building up of trained manpower—technical, managerial and administrative, for the purpose of implementing the Five Year Plans. They should be concerned broadly with questions of how to make management and administration more efficient, more economical and less dilatory.

5. It is not necessary for the Planning Commission to examine as a matter of routine all pieces of legislation or proposals received from States, relating to Land Reforms; these matters should be dealt with by the appropriate Ministries of the Government. The Land Reforms Division should focus its attention on the difficulties experienced by the States in effecting land reform and offer suggestions for overcoming them. It should also make a full assessment of the consequences of land reform in the social and the economic fields and on agricultural production, employment etc., in order to help future planning. Among the staff working in the Division there is no person who has personal experience of land tenure and its problems in the States. Persons, who have field experience as well as academic attainments and have attained the necessary stature, should be appointed to the Division.

6. The present arrangement of having a few persons from the Indian Statistical Institute to work in the Perspective Planning and Scientific and Technical Manpower Division is not satisfactory. While the services of non-Government bodies should be utilised to the extent possible for this and other specific purposes, their functions, duties and tasks should be clearly defined and allotted.

7. It is not necessary to duplicate arrangements in the Central Statistical Organisation and the Planning Commission for collection and collation of data. It should be possible for the Planning Commission to get all the statistical data it requires from the C.S.O. The Planning Commission should concentrate on the important work of studying, analysing and deducing inferences from the data and formulating advice on the basis of those inferences, rather than fritter away its energy on work, which can as well be entrusted to other statistical organisations.

8. The O & M Section of the Commission does not appear to have made any useful contribution during the last two years; it ought to function actively. In the absence of an adequate examination of the organisation and methods of the various Divisions, Branches and Sections, it will not be possible to know whether work has been organised in the most efficient and economical way.

IV. Evaluation

1. The existing allocation of States among the Advisers (Programme Administration) is not conducive to efficient functioning; each Adviser should have a compact area preferably comprising of all the States in an administrative zone. The Adviser in charge of the States in a zone should be available for consultation and for advising the Zonal Councils on problems involving the development of the zone. The headquarters of the Advisers should be located in the zone which will be under their charge. This would

also help them to maintain a closer touch with the Plan activities in their zone.

2. There should be a more systematic collection of all the useful observations and suggestions made by the Advisers which should be tabulated, analysed and given a shape and should be circulated to all the States. Also, more of such observations and greater details should be included in the progress reports issued by the Planning Commission.

3. Even though the Committee on Plan Projects has been doing very valuable work through the appointment of various Teams, by its very nature this method would be successful only for specialised studies to be made at some intervals. It will not be possible through this method to assess the progress of all the projects continuously; it would be necessary to supplement the present agencies with a machinery like the Programme Evaluation Organisation.

4. There is considerable scope for improving the machinery of the local authorities and Panchayats so as to secure greater progress in rural development. The Committee would, therefore, suggest that a comprehensive evaluation of the extent of assistance which these bodies render at present and could render in this matter should be made and steps taken to ensure their greater participation and co-operation in the field of rural development.

5. The evaluation machinery in respect of the various Plan Projects should be of two types : (1) for continuous evaluation of projects by the Central Government in respect of projects under it as well as in a State in respect of works in that State; and (2) an external evaluation machinery under the Planning Commission which should continuously and independently evaluate the progress made in regard to various projects under the Central Government and the State Governments.

6. The Planning Commission may usefully advise on certain problems of co-ordination and rationalisation of functions among the ministries and departments, e.g., land reclamation, and inland water transport, for which the administrative responsibility has not been properly allocated. The subject of irrigation is being dealt with by three ministries of the Government of India. The Planning Commission and the Advisers should take into consideration all such questions, whenever they notice them, and after consultation with the authorities concerned, suggest a rational distribution of functions, with a view to ensuring speedy and efficient execution of the schemes.

V. Planning

1. Adequate arrangements have not been made for commencing the preparation of the Third Five Year Plan. The methods of framing the Third Plan should receive urgent attention.

2. The desirability of setting up a body corresponding to the Planning Commission in each State should be examined in consultation with the State Governments. It might consist of experienced administrators and non-officials with an intimate knowledge of the problems of the State. It could concern itself with all aspects of planning in the State and also

function in co-ordination with the statistical and evaluation organisation at the State level.

3. The District Councils recommended by the C.O.P.P. Team on C.D. and N.E.S. should be given responsibility for the implementation of the Plan. Further, the Councils should constitute a number of Sub-Committees, each of them being in charge of a subject like agriculture, education, irrigation, roads, village industries, co-operation, etc. The Sub-Committee should have a non-official member of the Council as the Chairman and an official concerned with the subject as Secretary. Each Sub-Committee should look after the particular subject in the entire district.

4. (i) All Planning for the future should proceed from the village level upwards through the machinery of the Sub-Committee of the District Council suggested above. The broad distribution of the budget provision under the Plan should be prescribed by the Centre within which the State should evolve its own schematic budget, in consultation with the Central Ministries. Within this framework, the district and block level local representative organisations should work out priorities and phasing, subject to certain guiding principles and restrictions. Finally, within the block, the panchayat samiti recommended by the C.O.P.P. Team on C.D. and N.E.S. should break the integrated plan into smaller units *e.g.* Gram Sewak Circles, villages and families. (ii) It should be ensured that the modified outline of the Plan is passed on to the district level, so that at that level, necessary modifications can be made to fix the final village plan. If done this way, it would really emerge as the people's plan and would evoke spontaneous and enthusiastic co-operation from the people, and consequently much of the difficulty in the implementation of the plan would be automatically removed. This process of building up of a plan from the village level will necessarily take some time. Since the formulation of the Third Five Year Plan has to be taken in hand now, the Committee would recommend that the machinery suggested by them should be organised without loss of time and set in motion early.

5. (i) It is unfortunate that a start on the work of perspective planning was not made much earlier. Unless the long range objectives are well settled, short-term planning cannot be meaningful. The planners would have to think of at least a 25-year period and fix practicable limits to the growth of the economy during the period. (ii) The planning cells working in each Ministry should work out a long term plan while they are preparing one for the immediate future. Such questions as the location of industries, their development, facilities for transport, agricultural production, afforestation, harnessing of atomic energy for peaceful purposes, long range export promotion, mineral exploitation, etc., should be considered and a plan laid out for each. In particular, the problem of the haphazard growth of cities and the growing urbanisation in the country are matters which should be given sufficient consideration. (iii) The associated problem relating to slum clearance as well as town planning also needs attention. Further, the need to disperse industries over wide areas so as to prevent their springing up in an unwieldy and haphazard manner as also the connected labour problems has to be given due consideration. All such plans should be co-ordinated by a group of experts who would study the limits of our resources, the relations between the different targets and prepare a composite

perspective plan. (iv) Perspective planning should proceed concurrently with the five year plans. Also it should be a continuous process, so that as the economy develops and additional factors come to light, necessary re-adjustments can be made. The flow of statistical data, their analysis and researches should be directed not only to frame the five year plans, but to work out the perspective plan as well. (v) Steps should be taken to train a sufficient number of economists, statisticians, engineers and other technical personnel who will not only be experts but also have general ability and the capacity to look at problems with insight and imagination.

6. Without an adequate body of reliable data, Planning would be unrealistic. The Planning Commission, in consultation with the Central Statistical Organisation, should appoint a team of experts to enquire into the nature of statistical data compiled by all these diverse organisations, the duplication of effort involved, rationalisation of their functions and of the basis of collection of data, maximum utilisation of the data collected, allocation of functions among the different organisations under the Central and State Governments and other bodies, so that taking the country as a whole, there will be a network of organisations producing, without waste of effort or overlapping of functions, the data necessary for the purpose of planning and administration. This team should also look into gaps that now exist in the statistical data. They should also suggest measures for getting reliable data about the private sector and what is at present the unorganised portion of the private sector. The efforts of the team should be directed to produce a workable plan by which in the very near future a co-ordinated machinery will function throughout the country making the flow of all the necessary data available to the interested organisations.

PLANNING COMMISSION, AGRICULTURAL PERSONNEL COMMITTEE. *Report. March 1958. 166p+29 Tables.*

The Agricultural Personnel Committee was set up by the Planning Commission on March 18, 1957, with *Shri P.N. Thapar*, I.C.S., Secretary, Departments of Food and Agriculture, as Chairman and *Shri J.V.A. Nehemiah*, Secretary, Indian Council of Agricultural Research, as the Committee's Secretary. It had also 10 other government members. The terms of reference of the Committee were (1) to examine the present position in regard to the supply of trained technical, scientific and administrative personnel, with special reference to existing or expected shortages; (2) to make a fresh assessment of requirements for trained personnel during the Second and Third Plans; (2) to review the present programmes for the expansion of training facilities and to recommend measures for augmenting them.

The main observations, conclusions and principal recommendations of the Committee are given below :—

I. The Scope of Enquiry and Approach

1. The Committee's survey covers all categories of trained personnel required for the programmes of development, extension, research and education in the entire agricultural sector, including crop husbandry and horticulture, animal husbandry, veterinary science, dairying, fishing, forestry, soil conservation, agricultural engineering, plant protection, co-operation, agricultural marketing, agricultural statistics and agricultural economics.

2. The assessment of requirements, however, takes into consideration the demand for trained personnel for the execution only of what may be called the governmental and semi-governmental programmes in the agricultural sector. Except in a few subjects like marketing, agricultural engineering, and agricultural economics, the requirements of the private sector have not been included.

3. The gigantic agricultural labour force, enterprising farmers and rural leaders would also require some sort of training for bringing about an abiding improvement in agriculture. Considering the size of the problem, we have, under present conditions, to depend largely on the extension organisation to perform this task. The training programme recommended does not cover this requirement, the question of expansion of training facilities at appropriate levels for the purpose will have to be considered at a later stage.

4. Although the recommendations cover *ad hoc*, in-service and refresher training, attention has mainly been concentrated on the question of development of facilities for regular institutional training which takes not less than 3 to 4 years and has, therefore to be planned well in advance if future development is not to be hampered or held up for want of trained personnel. The economic development of the country and the raising of the standard of living of the common man will continue to depend to a very large extent on success in developing agricultural production. The Second Plan has a target of stepping up production of food grains at the average rate of roughly 4½ per cent per year and of all agricultural commodities by about 5½ per cent per year.

5. The development of horticulture, animal husbandry, dairying and fisheries initiated under the Second Plan needs to be expanded still further in the Third Plan period to provide a more balanced diet to the people. Increasing attention has to be given to proper land management; agricultural credit will have to be provided on a much larger scale than is envisaged in the Second Plan. The organization of agricultural marketing and grading will need strengthening; and the study of agricultural economics and farm management, which has so far been neglected in this country, will need special attention.

6. The trained personnel provided at present in agriculture, animal husbandry and allied fields is inadequate both in quality and number, and will need to be considerably strengthened at different levels if substantial results are to be achieved. The study of the development of agriculture in other countries shows that the need for highly trained personnel increases with the increase in the intensity of agriculture and the introduction of scientific methods of cultivation.

7. In recommending the expansion of training facilities the important considerations which have been constantly kept in view are : (1) the need for ensuring manpower preparedness in the Third Plan period, and (2) practical difficulties in the way of rapid expansion of training facilities, such as shortages of equipment and teachers. The disadvantages of too rapid an expansion of permanent training facilities have also been taken into consideration. The timely implementation of the recommendations made will, more or less, ensure manpower preparedness in the agricultural sector during the Third Plan period, and failure to do so may create difficulties.

II. Agriculture

1. In assessing the requirements of trained agricultural personnel for the Third Plan, it has been assumed that the rate of growth in agricultural production planned for the Second Plan has not merely to be maintained but somewhat stepped up; and the Committee has assumed a target of increase in agricultural production at the rate of about 5 per cent per year during the Third Plan period.

2. (i) In June 1957, there were 30,000 posts in the agricultural sector for which a degree in agriculture or some other branch of science or arts had been laid down as an essential qualification. Of these, there were 10,600 posts for which a degree in agriculture was considered to be an essential qualification, and 4,700 posts for which a degree in agriculture was a preferential qualification. For 4,200, graduates in agriculture were eligible without enjoying any preference. The remaining 10,700 posts required qualifications in subjects other than agriculture. Of the 10,600 posts for which a degree in agriculture was an essential qualification, 9,000 had been filled by June 1957, and 1,600 were vacant; and of 4,700 posts for which a degree in agriculture was a preferential qualification, 4,200 had been filled.

(ii) It is estimated that during the period June 1957—March 1961 (of the Second Plan) there will be need for 8,900 agricultural graduates. This is on the basis that there will be 6,900 posts for which a degree in agriculture is regarded as an essential qualification, and 2,000 posts for which such a degree is a preferential qualification. The output of all the agricultural colleges during 1957-61 is estimated at 6,000. There will thus be a shortage of about 2,800 agricultural graduates by the end of the Second Plan period. To this should be added the requirement of multi-purpose high schools which may be about 500. The deficiency cannot be made good during the Second Plan period. If, however, the N.E.S. programme is staggered so that the entire country is covered by 1963 instead of by 1961, the requirements of agricultural graduates during the Second Plan period would be reduced by 1,900.

(iii) (a) The requirements of agricultural graduates in the entire agricultural sector during the Third Plan period has been estimated at 27,500, resulting in an annual demand for agricultural graduates of 5,500. For an annual out-put of about 5,500 agricultural graduates, it will be necessary to provide facilities for admissions of 6,000 students yearly in the agricultural colleges as against the admissions of 2,600 at present. The present high wastage in the colleges of agriculture should be reduced to not more than 10 per cent; any higher wastage must be regarded as a serious matter.

(b) For meeting the additional training requirements of the Third Plan, the quickest way would perhaps be to expand, wherever possible, the existing institutions to the desired level without lowering the efficiency of training. On the assumption that the admission potential in the existing institutions would be increased to 4,500 annually, and that the new agricultural university proposed to be established at Rudrapur (Uttar Pradesh) will take about 200 students per year, there would still be need for the establishment of about 8 new institutions with a total of 1,300 seats. The new institutions may be set up in states or zones where the gap between the output and prospective demand is the greatest.

3. (a) For strengthening the research set-up, it is of prime importance that the measures initiated under Second Plan for expanding post-graduate research and training should be extended so that at least one agricultural college in each State is developed, during the Third Plan period, for initiating post-graduate research and education. (b) There should be some link between these colleges and the Central Research Institutions, such as the Central Rice Research Institute, Cuttack, so that facilities provided for research at the central institutions are available for post-graduate students. (c) In addition, a large net-work of research stations for dealing with the specific problems of each agro-climatic region and tract having a particular type of soil and climate should be developed. At least 50 such major research stations (including existing units) would need to be developed by the end of the Third Plan period; and each of these stations would need to be supported on an average by two sub-stations. (d) On the assumption that roughly 50 per cent of the research posts in agricultural chemistry, entomology, mycology and botany may be filled by pure science graduates the requirements of agricultural graduates for purposes of agricultural research and development may be placed at 4,500. Of this number, 2,000 should have post-graduate qualifications.

4. (i) Agriculture must occupy the pride of place in the National Extension Service programme. The effectiveness of this programme must depend to a very large extent on the quality and training of the village level worker and his competence to win the confidence of the cultivator. The training of the village level worker should extend over a period of at least 2 years and intensive training in agriculture should continue throughout this period.

(ii) Some degree of personal contact between the extension agent and the farmers is essential for effective Extension work, and such contact cannot be established and maintained by the village level worker with the present large jurisdiction of 10 villages. The village level worker in India is a multipurpose worker with a wide range of duties, and the number of individual farmers to be contacted is very large owing to the small size of holdings in India. There are also other difficulties, such as lack of village communications. An appropriate charge for a village level worker may be 5 villages of 500 to 600 farms.

(iii) The objective should be to raise this village level worker to the level of an agricultural graduate, over a period of time. If this became possible the multipurpose character of the Extension service at the village level would be maintained while ensuring at the same time adequate technical guidance to farmers.

(iv) For providing effective technical guidance to the village level workers the Block level staff should be strengthened by the addition of 4 agricultural graduates with some special training in selected subjects.

(v) There should be 5 agricultural subject-matter specialists at the district level with post-graduate training in their respective fields. For purposes of administrative supervision, the specialist staff should be placed under the district agricultural officer who will have the over-all responsibility for supervision of the extension programme.

(vi) A small 'Extension Wing' consisting of a selected number of subject-matter specialists with training in Extension methods to help to develop an effective farm advisory service will be necessary in each State.

(vii) Additional requirements of agricultural graduates during the Third Plan period for Extension work would be of the order of 11,560.

(viii) If it is agreed that the village level workers should eventually be agricultural graduates, it may be assumed that our requirements of agricultural graduates in the entire agricultural sector in course of time would be of the order of 1,50,000. At the rate of 3 to 5 per cent wastage due to retirement, the annual replacement will be nearly 5,000 agricultural graduates when 1,50,000 graduates are in position. The additional training facilities recommended by the Committee will need to be continued without reduction even beyond the Third Plan period.

(ix) 24,000 village level workers were trained up to November 1957, leaving a balance of about 27,000 to be trained during the rest of the Second Plan period. These could be trained by October-November 1960 if the capacity of the training centres is fully utilised. If the Committee's recommendations regarding the training and jurisdiction of the village level worker are accepted, another 51,200 village level workers, trained over a longer period, would be required. The existing training centres, with suitable modifications, should be adequate to train this number.

III. Animal Husbandry

1. (i) The overall supply and demand position of veterinary personnel during the Second Plan period appears to be satisfactory; there are, however, likely to be local surpluses and deficits which would need adjustments through co-operation among the States.

(ii) The reasons for the present high waste, namely, 30% in veterinary colleges should be examined and efforts made to reduce it to the minimum.

2. (i) The requirements and the output of veterinary graduates during the Third Plan period have been estimated at 6,800 and 5,800 respectively; the shortage of about 1,000 veterinary graduates will have to be met by making the maximum use of the existing institutions and of the proposed new institution in Mysore and the Agricultural University at Rudrapur (U.P.).

(ii) The four colleges and the Indian Veterinary Research Institute, which are proposed to be developed into centres of post-graduate research and training, should be able to meet the requirement of 1,000 persons with post-graduate qualifications in animal husbandry and veterinary science during the Third Plan period.

IV. Dairying

1. The present unsatisfactory position in regard to the supply of milk cannot be expected to improve sufficiently unless milk production can be increased at a rate considerably faster than the growth of population.

2. It is estimated that about 600 qualified dairy men and higher staff will be required for implementing the dairy development programme during the Second Plan period. The position regarding basic institutional training for this staff is not unsatisfactory. In-plant training will, however, be

necessary for persons who will be responsible for running the commercial milk supply schemes, e.g., managers, engineers etc.

3. (i) Milk supply schemes may have to be taken up in 120 cities with a population exceeding 50,000, and milk product factories in 9 areas during the Third Plan period.

(ii) To provide specialist advice on problems relating to dairy development, 100 dairy specialists will be needed at the district level and 500 Extension officers, having training in dairying, at the Block level.

(iii) The existing facilities will have to be expanded to provide training for 3,300 technical personnel needed for milk supply schemes, milk factories and as specialists and extension staff.

V. Fisheries

1. The requirements of administrative and research personnel and personnel for fishing vessels and engineers during the years 1957-61 will be of the order of 630 (170 senior and 460 junior positions).

2. The *ad hoc* arrangements for training of fisheries personnel should be replaced by a regular system of institutional training to prepare candidates for taking higher positions in government and in the industry; and the proposal of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, to establish a higher training institution to provide 'composite' training in all aspects of fisheries should be implemented early. This institution should be able to turn out 300 qualified administrative personnel against the total requirement of 350 during the Third Plan period.

3. (i) Fisheries developmental staff should be organised on the basis of fisheries districts which may vary in size from state to state, and should receive the assistance of specialists in different fields.

(ii) 620 specialists will be required during the Third Plan period and these could be trained in the existing institutions, except that new facilities will have to be provided for fishery co-operative personnel and the existing facilities for marine engineers and master fishermen will have to be expanded.

(iii) Higher training in special subjects should continue to be given in foreign countries to selected persons. Japan would be most suitable in most of the fields except fish conservation and management for which training in the U.S.A. would be preferable.

VI. Forestry

1. (i) During the Second Plan period facilities will be required to train 250 Forest Officers and 700 Rangers, and about 80 Forest Officers and 160 Rangers in the Third Plan. The present training facilities are adequate to meet these demands. (ii) The surplus capacity should be utilised to train private candidates.

2. As all training is at present given in India, the various foreign scholarship schemes should be availed of to send a officers each year for advanced and specialised courses in forestry to appropriate foreign countries.

VIII. Soil Conservation

1. The minimum target for soil conservation during the next 25 to 30 years should be 200 million acres; for the Second Plan period, 3 million acres, requiring nearly 5,200 technically trained officers, assistants and sub-assistants.

2. (i) The recruitment and training of soil conservation personnel would require to be lifted from the present rather temporary and makeshift arrangements and placed on a sound and permanent footing.

(ii) The immediate training needs could be met by an expansion of facilities at the existing officers' training centre at Dehra Dun from 20 to 50 officers, and at the four centres for Assistants from 80 to 104, a year.

(iii) During the Third Plan period, training facilities should be progressively increased to train additional 340 Officers, 1,700 Assistants and 6,800 Sub-assistants.

(iv) During the Fourth and Fifth Plan periods, facilities at the existing centres should be increased progressively to train personnel for 260 working units (with a complement of one Officer, 5 Assistants and 20 Sub-assistants to manage 5,000 acres).

3. For manning key positions, involving planning, direction and supervision, promising officers should be picked up and given suitable training in India and abroad.

4. The large number of trained personnel required for soil conservation work could be found only if permanent additions are made to the cadres of the departments concerned in order to ensure optimum utilisation of the training centres. In the alternative, a separate soil conservation cadre may be formed.

VIII. Agricultural Marketing

1. (i) 430 graduate technical personnel needed during 1957-61 would be available.

(ii) Their additional requirement during the Third Plan period would be of the order of 700 (330 graduates in agriculture with specialisation in agricultural economics and 100 with a post-graduate degree in agricultural economics).

2. Senior marketing personnel may be sent to foreign countries in batches of 4 to 6 each year, for advanced study for a period of 3 to 4 months.

IX. Co-operation

1. An attempt should be made in the Third Plan period to employ agricultural graduates in at least 1/3rd of the intermediate and senior posts; the co-operative sector would thereby absorb a minimum of 300 to 400 agricultural graduates with a post-graduate degree in agricultural economics and 2,500 agricultural graduates.

2. An additional college for in-service training of senior personnel may have to be needed and facilities at the existing college at Poona will have to be expanded.

X. Agricultural Statistics

1. The rate of appointment of statisticians has been regrettably slow; to remedy this situation, a far greater number of posts for qualified statisticians will need to be created and provision made for selecting and training necessary men to fill them.

2. (i) All research institutes, having a reasonable amount of statistical work, should have a minimum staff of 2 Research Statisticians and the necessary Statistical Assistants and Computers.

(ii) There should be a minimum of 2 Research Statisticians in each State Department.

(iii) 300 Research Statisticians, 340 Statistical Assistants and 560 Computers would be needed for the Second and Third Plans.

(iv) The possibility of integrating the statistical work of the various research departments in agricultural fields in the State into one strong unit should be explored.

3. (i) With the re-arrangement proposed for integrating the training programme of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research with that of the Indian Statistical Institute, the annual in-take to the diploma course conducted by the Council can be safely increased to 30.

(ii) If the I.C.A.R. Statistical Wing is to continue to perform its research functions properly, it should not be committed to too large a training programme.

(iii) In order to attract the most promising students for specialised training it is essential to provide scholarships for those entering post-graduate courses.

4. If a statistical cadre of high standard is to be built up and maintained, the initial scales of pay should be comparable with those that can be obtained in other fields of activity requiring similar ability and training.

XI. Agricultural Economics

1. A close collaboration of agricultural economists with other specialists is required to improve the long-term efficiency of all sectors of agriculture.

2. (i) Agricultural economics at the post-graduate level is taught in a few agricultural colleges and in some universities and institutions. The candidates admitted to the latter secure a basic degree in economics and not in agriculture. It would be necessary to provide for both types of study.

(ii) For effective post-graduate research and teaching in agricultural economics, there should be a strong department of Agricultural Economics in at least one agricultural college in each State, under an officer of Class I status with adequate support at lower levels. The Professor of Agricultural Economics could also be the Agricultural Economist to the State Government and have necessary research support. This should be arranged during the Third Plan period.

3. All the major Commodity Committees should have their own agricultural economics sections.

4. The total requirements in the Third Plan period, for post-graduate agricultural colleges, agro-economic research and farm management research centres and co-operative development schemes of persons with a Doctorate degree in agricultural economics would be 200; and of persons with post-graduate degrees in agricultural economics, 700; and of graduates in agriculture with training in agricultural economics, about 1,350.

5. The University Grants Commission may take up the question of expanding and improving facilities for teaching of and research in agricultural economics at Universities. The Agricultural Economics Committee of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, which is at present engaged in drawing up a suitable syllabus for the course in agricultural economics at the graduate and post-graduate levels in the agriculture colleges, may also go into the question of teaching agricultural economics at the Universities and make recommendations.

XII. Agricultural Engineering

1. The requirement of graduates in agricultural engineering during 1957-61 will be about 80; and for the Third Plan period, about 200 per year. The out-put from the Agricultural Institute, Allahabad and the Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, is about 30 a year; and this would be adequate to meet the needs during the remaining years of the Second Plan.

2. Agricultural engineering should be one of the disciplines in the college which is developed in each State as a centre in post-graduate research and teaching during the Third Plan period. Agricultural engineering sections in the States and at the Central Institutes would require strengthening during this period.

3. The Committee endorses the suggestions of the Engineering Board, set up by the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, that courses in agricultural engineering should be started on a regional basis in engineering colleges at selected centres having an agricultural college close by.

XIII. Plant Protection

1. The most effective way of giving technical advice and material assistance on plant protection to farmers would be to provide each Block with a graduate and qualified plant protection Extension Officer, supported by a specialist (with a post-graduate degree) at the district level.

2. The total requirements of graduate technical personnel for plant protection work during the Third Plan period will be 5,800; of these about 2,900 will have to be graduates in agriculture.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE SOVIET SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT By **JOHN N. HAZARD**. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1957, 256p. \$4.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE STATE By **FRITZ MORSTEIN MARX**. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1957, x, 202p., \$4.

Under the editorship of Roy C. Macridis the Chicago Library of Comparative Politics has brought these two books out as its first two volumes in a series meant to challenge the reader to independent thought. The first work, that of Prof. Hazard, deals with the Soviet Government in as full and objective a manner as is possible in the circumstances. For several years before, during and after the Second World War Prof. Hazard had opportunities of very close study of the structure and operation of the Soviet system of government. Apart from written records and interviews at high levels Prof. Hazard has drawn intensively on the results of interviews with Russian emigrants. The book that he has produced is as authoritative and analytical source book as we can hope to have for English readers. Not only the mechanics of Government, but all the social background and ideological urges which go to make the Soviet polity have been carefully described. Opinions intrude very rarely, and thus we have by our side a reliable informant on Soviet Government whom all students of government would like to consult for facts. The state of communication is no longer so unsatisfactory as to justify any reasonable doubts about the main outlines of the structure and operation of the Russian system of Government.

Prof. Hazard rightly discards the view held by some students of Russian affairs that the Russian system of government is a totalitarian and autocratic system masquerading under democratic forms and names. He sees no deliberate intent to be one thing while appearing to be another. On his part Prof. Hazard considers that the Russian system consists of democratic parts which are counter-balanced by authoritarian devices. This would mean that all parts, democratic and authoritarian, are consciously fitted into a system, without any intent of deceptiveness. This, however, leaves out the possibility, which in fact is the reality, that what Prof. Hazard calls the authoritarian features are for the Russians as integral a part of democratic structure, as those other features, which Prof. Hazard allows to be democratic. Prof. Hazard has described in full the whole scheme of Russian values and social apparatus. This leaves no doubt that the entire life of the Russian people, the Russian polity, flows from some principles, all of which have to be taken together to understand the working of Russian Government.

Quite elementarily, the common concept of Western democracy of popular participation does not hold the field in Russia. The common people are not considered either capable of understanding their real interests or of a desire and competence to share in the essential task of government, that of decision making. Government for the masses, not necessarily by the masses, is the Russian definition of democracy. For the essential task

of decision making a special group of elite personalities is considered to be essential in peoples' democracies. This elite is to be sought among the working classes who have a nearer contact with processes of modern industrialism than other classes in the community. From among the working classes such persons as have studied the Marxist-Leninist theory of the transformation of capitalism into socialism, and eventually into communism constitute the leadership group. The essentials of Marxist-Leninist science are self-evident and permanent. They need no further research or objective examination. What the leaders have to do is to band themselves into devoted and disciplined cadres to carry out the various functions essential for the preservation and progress of the socialist regime. Concentration of authority within the party, and the all-pervasive power of the party over all things and persons within the State, are integral and unalterable features of current Russian society.

Why should Russian courts which in all non-political matters appear to work with the greatest objectivity and consideration for real justice appear to be devoid of elementary consideration for equity in political cases, can only be answered in terms of the relativity of notions about equity and justice. Anything, literally anything including terror, which in the opinion of the supreme leadership of the party is considered necessary for the preservation of the Soviet regime, is accepted as being inherently right and just. By the very concept of discipline and non-factionousness within the party, rule of party necessarily develops into rule of personality. The personality cult is inconsistent with the principle of Soviet rule which ought to be collective rule. But the fact of personality rule is unavoidable in the Marxist-Leninist version of democracy in which decision making has to be shared only by a disciplined and centralized group of leaders. This is the real contradiction of Russian thought. Unless the protagonists of revolutionary socialism are prepared to concede to the mass of the people freedom to decide for themselves, no one except the supreme leader for the time being in the communist party can have that freedom. Such a system, howsoever benevolent it may be in some cases, is essentially an unstable system. Only by discarding their prejudice against people's capacity to judge for themselves can socialists hope to build democracy. Some at least among Russian socialists seem to be realizing this truth. Contacts with socialist regimes outside Russia are creating thought stirrings on both sides of the curtain.

Such rethinking is being denounced by leaders in authority as liberal deviation. There is another 'deviation', which is equally dreaded by persons in authority, but which seems to be equally natural. According to the traditional Marxist-Leninist views parties as well as nations are exclusive groups which arise only on account of conflict of economic interests. Where there is no conflict of economic interests as in a classless society there is no justification for a division into parties or nations. That is why good communists have necessarily to be non-factionous and international. Whether conflict of economic interests has in fact ceased or not, its end has to be assumed as a communist axiom. Those who wield authority in the communist party of Soviet Russia constitute themselves into the interpreters not only of the interest of the Russian people but also of those of all working people of the world. Assumption of this role of leadership does not depend on the people of any other nation desiring the Russian Soviet leaders to do so. It is axiomatic, as nations are not recognized as normal and legitimate units. As communists have to be irreligious, they have

to be inter-, *i.e.*, non-nationalists as well. That such an attitude towards other nations is inconsistent with an honest support to the doctrine of peaceful co-existence is obvious. Undoubtedly this perception, among other things is responsible for a lack of initial understanding between Soviet and non-Soviet negotiators of any international transactions with a political content. This contradiction between the doctrine of non-nationalism, wrongly described as inter-nationalism, and peaceful co-existence concerns the whole world, and if ever negotiations with Russia are to be pursued with confidence a clarification would have to be forthcoming.

Dr. Hazard's book contains a vast amount of detailed information on the well-known themes of police methods, trade unions and the educational system. But of greater interest to students of administration is the account of the working of the legal system and of local government. The system of lay judges, two of whom drawn from common citizens for about ten days in a year sit with professional judges in all original cases, is an interesting variant of the jury system. For fact finding and for assessment of evidence the lay judges are said to make a real contribution. The college of advocates supplies a panel of lawyers under a social assistance scheme to all litigants. These also are said to work with competence in all but political cases. The services, as distinguished from leaders of communist party, do seem to have quite a trying time with the ever present danger of complaints against them appearing even in the controlled press. It is not surprising that a large part of the services, including armed services, seek admission to the party itself. Party status is less insecure than service status. This is true right up the line till the president of the Supreme Council of Ministers. The machinery of government is only for the purpose of registering and carrying out the decisions of the party. Even this formality is not considered necessary in all cases, and often the party decides, announces and carries out important measures by itself. The Soviet Prime Minister is a shadow of the Party Secretary who may decide to do without this superfluity whenever a single representation of Russian authority is considered suitable. For objective students of the Soviet system of government and administration, Prof. Hazard's work must be considered to be not only a useful, but a necessary reading.

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The "Administrative State," which is the subject of study by Prof. Fritz Morstein Marx, is not necessarily a totalitarian or an authoritarian state. In fact citizens as well as servants are subjected to centralized authority in totalitarian regimes. The administrative state is a normal manifestation of constitutional government in industrially developed states. While the legislative and judicial branches of governmental organization continue to function normally, the quantum and technical complexity of administrative tasks involved in the activities of the modern state goes on increasing. For a satisfactory discharge of these functions a large professional corps of civil servants becomes necessary. While the administrative organs are by no means comparable with the legislative, judicial or high executive branches of constituted authority of the sovereign state, in their continuous and intimate impact on the life of the citizens administration, *i.e.*, the service organisations, are coming to play a very important part. While political decision making cannot be left to the services, decision making in many technical and operational features has to be left to them, as they are functionally best qualified to decide between wrong and right decisions in these matters.

Any provision against wrong decisions has also to be made within the technical administrative organisation than within the political hierarchy, though it would be the duty of the latter to ensure that the former, like all other organs of the administration, is working satisfactorily.

Decisions of principle or of general application, which for technical and operational reasons have to be left to the administration, are not always on the high level of political policy. Contrary to traditional British thinking on the subject, exemplified in the famous "New Despotism" of Justice Hemart, decision making by the services has become a structural necessity. Prof. Marx correctly indicates the area of administration, as distinguished from political, decision making where far from being a despotism, service operation would be the only safe guide to fruitful and equitable action. The need to have trained and professional services has been emphasised by these very aspects of public administration, both in its organizational and technical aspects. The entry into public service, occasionally for only brief periods of duty, of experienced professionals has made decision making by and with the advice of, services even more natural and legitimate.

Another feature traditionally associated with the services, particularly with the higher services, is that of political neutrality. Does the civil servant serve the regime or does he serve the state? A question like this can have relevance only where a regime is replaceable. Where the regime is not constitutionally replaceable, there is no distinction between the state and the government. Even where the government is constitutionally removable the services can be permitted to have an independent judgment about the interests of the state, as distinguished from those of the government of the day only to the extent to which the constitution supplies a firm guidance on the subject. In the language of German Civil Service Act of 1953: "By his entire conduct the civil servant must profess his attachment to the free democratic order in the sense of the Basic Law and exert himself for its preservation." It is characteristic of the status of the civil servant that even when he professes to act in support of the basic law, he has no legal redress against the government of the day. He has to submit himself to the processes of legal inquiry into his conduct, and it is for the administrative judges, some of whom may be his own peers to say whether he wrongly interpreted his duty to the state. This is where the tradition of merit, coupled with devotion and integrity, created by each service for itself stands it in good stead. A state which desires to be well served by its administrative cadres should, therefore, be very careful in building up a well trained and professional corps of civil servants.

The pace of change in policy as well as in execution has grown so tremendously in the recent past that services are finding it well-nigh impossible to maintain a pose either of superiority of merit or of aloofness of interest. If only they exert to the full to identify themselves with the long term interests of the people at large they will find that their claim to independent advisers will be accepted by the people and their leaders. As Prof. Marx says: "Administrative neutrality...is a militant creed...It is an abuse of the concept of neutrality when it is invoked by the civil servant as a convenient way out of any personal involvement in public decisions or as a justification for hanging tightly to the coat tails of those bearing political responsibility." Properly interpreted there is no need why the concern of the civil servant for the

constitution and for the long term interests of the public at large should make him a conservative or even a moderate centralist, as Prof. Marx thinks it would. In fact, it is this static attitude on the responsibilities of the civil services which would appear to lead to the somewhat pessimistic future which he envisages for the career services. If only the services could really imbibe the principles, not only the words, of the constitution, and if they were to identify themselves with the people in the emotional as well as the intellectual process of decision making, they with their selective merit and experience would have a most valuable contribution to make towards the progress of the state.

As Prof. Marx says in the concluding part of his admirable work : "It is clear that significant advances in the functional efficiency of the "administrative state" cannot be expected without corresponding changes in the working style of the administrative system. In this respect perhaps the most important thing is the acceptance within the higher civil service of a re-orientation toward its role. The men of the top cadre must shift their attention from watching "processes" to measuring their impact, from "getting things done" to giving each citizen his due, from the technology of administration to its effect upon the general public, from utility to ethics. Not what is being said but what is being done will decide whether the "administrative state" will stand out eventually as a benefactor or as a destroyer. It is for the civil servant to realize that much of what can be done must be his doing."

—D. G. Karve

THE MACHINERY OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT By R.M. JACKSON. London, Macmillan & Co. Ltd., 1958, xii, 350p. 3. s.

Here is an engrossing study of English Local Government. It appears at places to have been written in the manner of a text book, with the pros and cons of an argument analysed and carefully itemised. But, nevertheless, the subject is treated with a difference—Local Government is looked at as an integral part of the whole scheme of government. Over and over again, a problem is considered with reference to the implications that arise at the national and the local levels. Party politics and the system of elections are, for example, two matters that are so analysed. In the result, one is enabled to obtain a clearer idea of the fundamentals and of the need for their adaptation in different contexts. Secondly, the book, though essentially concerned with the English system, draws upon law and practice prevailing in other countries, too. This is, in a sense, inevitable, for, as the author says, "local authorities in different countries are engaged in work that is much the same, and their troubles are much the same." The overtures of difference arising from local peculiarities and background are handled with judgment; and the impression left behind is that of the essential sameness of the aim and practice of local government.

There is a great deal in the book that is of special interest and significance to Indian students of local government. We have heard and continue to hear a long debate on the place of the Municipal Corporation in the local scheme of things. There is still a tendency, nay a desire, to look upon the local authority as much the same thing, though on a smaller scale, as the national or a State Government. Such an assumption

is, however, fallacious. National and State Governments are formed and run on the basis of political creeds and the support these creeds find from the electorate. But the party system, operating to frame policy based on political grounds, has no real place in local government. A local Council does not have to produce from its members a government that can command a majority in the Council. "It is true that some people (mostly keen party supporters) say that local government is greatly improved when it is run on party lines, whereas other people (certainly as well informed) say that party politics do more harm than good. But no one has ever maintained that the working of local government depends on parties; manifestly it can and does work quite well without them." An analysis of achievements does not suggest that their pattern is, to any substantial degree, related to political creed. Some of the most "Socialist" things that have been done in local government in England have been done by Councils having conservative majorities and vice versa. Indeed, England seems to be drifting, especially after the last war, into a situation where the conduct of local affairs might be better if there were less party politics.

National and State Governments under a federal system are supreme. Local Government, on the other hand, has its powers and functions determined by the law of the legislature above. It must, therefore, work in a realm where, although certain powers are exercised in its own right, operation in the manner of a legislature, is ruled out. A local authority is essentially an administrative organ and the technique that is appropriate is vastly different from that of political government at the national or state level.

These differences in nature and organisation, Mr. Jackson argues, ought to determine the system of elections suited to each level of government. Parliament, on any theory of elections, must be organised politically. The job of local Councils is to *be local*, so that the services and the administration are as much in accordance with local requirements as can be secured within reasonable limits. A local Council must, therefore, consist of men and women who know and can speak for all kinds and sections of the local people. The way in which the members of Parliament are selected should thus be related to Parliament and its functions; and the system for local Councils should be settled specifically for their needs. To give these Councils the best chance of being representative, an electoral system is needed that will give minority opinion a fair share. The approved method is proportional representation, by the single transferable vote. It ensures to a candidate a fair chance of success if a substantial number of people will give him their support, whether the supporters are unorganised or are a non-party body (as when women's organisations support a woman candidate) or are a minority political party. These reflections from a country that has so long and so successfully worked local government represent a reaction against the bane of politics operating in a field alien to it. They provide us with much food for thought, but it does not appear that we have yet made any penetrating study of the issues involved.

But in the light of our own experiences of the expanding territorial jurisdiction of town councils and corporations, it is interesting to know that thought in England has started to doubt whether a town, separated from the surrounding countryside, should continue to be a unit of separate local government. Frequently, a town and its surrounding areas appear as one, when we think of the social, cultural and economic life of the people.

But when we look at local government structure, all that we see is a division of territory and powers. Much debate has taken place on the amalgamation of local authorities to produce better and more homogeneous administrative units. The social pattern, the size of population, the needs of a strong administrative machinery have all been discussed as possible criteria for a scheme of reorganisation. But old established councils have shown a great deal of resistance to change, despite the clearly demonstrated need for such change. The author says: "The case for re-casting it (Local Government) is that it could be better and some conflicts could be remedied, but as it is nowhere near to breaking down, its structure is to be repaired rather than to be re-built." In India, we are fortunate that we have been able to make greater progress in the re-organisation of jurisdiction and the amalgamation of smaller, less viable units of local government.

The chapters on "Finance", "Relation with the Central Government" and "Dishonesty and Corruption" contain much that is apt for Indian conditions and are well worth a study. The last subject, particularly, covers ground in respect of which there is not much literature. The legal and other restraints that exist do, no doubt, have a salutary effect, but as the author explains "law is only one of the social controls that influence men's conduct". An improvement in the standards of integrity has, in England, been a matter of interesting historical change. An earlier system of general and gross corruption has given place to one of fairly high standards. The emergence of honest politicians and civil servants is not the result of any single cause. Many factors have operated, not the least important of which has been the growth of professional bodies that have imposed and enforced a high standard of conduct on its members. Perhaps here is the direction in which India can profitably move.

—P. R. Nayak

TRAINING IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION. *New York, United Nations Technical Assistance Administration, 1958, 46p. \$0.25.*

This is a short but highly informative study based on the material prepared for the United Nations Expert Working Group which met in Geneva from October 9 to 16, 1957, to review and evaluate the progress of the U.N. training projects in the field of public administration. The experts were four on South America, three on Africa, three on the Middle East and one on South East Asia. The Working Group was attended on behalf of the Government of India by *Shri L.P. Singh, I.C.S.*, Director, Central Manpower Directorate, and Officer on Special Duty for enquiry into services organisation questions, Union Ministry of Home Affairs.

The U.N. training projects are both national and regional. In the case of regional projects, the training institution is either operated jointly by a group of countries or provision is made, through U.N. fellowships and payment of travel costs, for trainees from neighbouring countries to attend at a national training institution. The training institution receives technical assistance from the United Nations mainly in the form of services of experts and fellowships.

The Study claims that the benefits of a successful public administration training scheme are not confined to increasing the effectiveness of the public service, the training institution also indirectly stimulates administrative reforms and improvements to enable the government mechanism to

cope with the increased burdens of economic and social development. A training project has thus an expanding influence beyond its immediate impact on the individuals, it has a "multiplier" effect. The training institution tends to become a focal point of new ideas and insights into the techniques of public administration. The numerous problems of rendering of technical assistance—the nature of the project, the form and location of the training institution, its independence, support by government departments, the question of recruitment and adaptation of experts, and effective utilization of fellowships—all have been dealt with in a pragmatic manner. So are the problems relating to the arrangements to be made by the training institutions recipient of technical assistance. A full section is then devoted to technical aspects of training, covering selection of trainees, teaching materials, methods of instruction, the nature, content and duration of the course, etc. This is followed by certain conclusions relating to the evaluation of technical assistance training projects.

Some of the observations made in the Study deserve special notice. We are told that many of a country's needs in administrative training will only become clear as the project grows and reveals where additions or modifications are needed; that the training institution should free itself from some of the restraints of *administrative* and *academic* tradition; that a combination of academic staff and public servants will give the institution the necessary balance between theory and practice; that the international expert has to adjust his ideas to a scale of priority of needs at first totally unfamiliar to him and he must not suggest more innovation at once than the situation will bear; and that training at the institute of public administration should not compete with the university, it should seek to supplement academic studies by demonstrating the application of theory and principle to the realities of the local situation. The nature and scope of the curriculum have to be adjusted to the type of training to be imparted. The training scheme may cater to the requirements of senior or junior generalist-administrators or functional specialists or clerical secretariat personnel, or concentrate on special phases of administration common to all departments. The training institution may even gradually adopt a role of stimulation and advice. In organizing a training course efforts should be made to avoid a curriculum so broad as to duplicate university study, and advanced material so specialized as to help only a limited group in particular jobs.

Most of these observations are pertinent not only to the U.N. centres for training in public administration but also for any national centre or school in the field such as the School of Public Administration which the Indian Institute of Public Administration proposes to set up. The Study also reveals that the role of an institute of public administration varies a good deal in different countries, depending upon national conditions and circumstances.

The success of an internationally-aided training centre in public administration depends partly on the quality of instruction. The duration of the stay of international experts at the training institution should be sufficiently long to enable them to acquire an adequate knowledge of local traditions and circumstances. The national government may even utilize their services in an advisory capacity in connection with the planning and evaluation of some of its administrative projects. This experience will also help to

impart a realistic touch to the instruction given by the international expert. No less important is maintaining a regular contact by the training centre with the appropriate higher educational institutions in the country. The training centre may even be located in the vicinity of an important national university. The universities maintain a certain amount of intellectual freedom. The training of administrators, particularly of middle and higher levels, cannot be effective without their indoctrination into the basic concepts of public administration; theory should permeate the entire programme, 'from the arrangement of subject-matter to the choice of example'. Again there is need for a 'foundational and background' course for recruits to administrative services. The new welfare and development tasks, which the administrator today has to perform, call for a wide knowledge and understanding of the complexities and inter-relationships of modern social, economic and political life. The emphasis in administrative studies has therefore to be on the study of the administrative process as a synthesis of many and varied fields of knowledge. Above all it might be worthwhile for the United Nations to look into the changes in the nature, form and content of technical assistance which are needed to reorient the training programme of the U.N. centres to meet the new needs of development of the recipient countries.

—V. K. N. Menon

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION IN BRITAIN. By W.J.M. MACKENZIE & J.W. GROVE. London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1957, xiii, 487p. 30/-.

In several British Universities study and research in the field of Public Administration have been substantially extended in the post-war period. Degree and diploma courses in Public Administration have been instituted at quite a few places while the expansion of research facilities has resulted in the publication of several valuable monographs. But there has been a lack of a comprehensive and up-to-date text-book, giving a systematic exposition of the chief features and problems of the Central Administration and its personnel. The two books which appeared some years ago—Professor S.E. Finer's "A Primer of Public Administration" and Mr. E.N. Gladden's "An Introduction to Public Administration"—are rather too elementary to be of much use to the University teachers and advanced students as well as to the civil servants. The book under review, therefore, fills a lacuna in the literature on the British Administration by providing a lucid and comprehensive account of the administrative system and its traditions. The two authors of the book display sound scholarship with inside knowledge of the British Administration. This is mostly due to the fact that Prof. Mackenzie is not only a well-known scholar but has also served as a temporary civil servant during the Second World War while Mr. Grove, a University teacher, can claim valuable experience in the field of Local Administration and in the Army.

The book is not only highly informative about the present British administrative set-up but also provides a historical perspective of the administration. Again, not only the material has been properly digested and systematised by the authors but a check-up of the book testifies to the general accuracy of its contents. The book is also interspersed with illuminating

comments of the authors on the working of the administrative system. Another important feature of the book is that the human aspect of the administration has not been ignored by the authors altogether as is generally done by many writers of text-books on Public Administration.

Part I of the book deals with the Civil Service. Herein is sketched the Treasury's role as the Central Personnel Agency. Due notice has also been taken of the working of the Civil Service Commission which has established a big reputation during about hundred years of its existence. A substantial account has also been given of the structure, recruitment, training, terms of employment, staff associations and Whitleyism within the Civil Service. The account of the prevailing standards and attitudes among the civil servants provide an interesting reading to an Indian reader in view of the general deterioration in the administrative standards which he finds in his own country today.

Part II of the book is concerned with the organization, methods and procedures of the various departments. The authors have also given a description of the administrative process, though rather briefly. The post-war trends—such as the increasing use of O & M, the strengthening of Establishment Divisions for promoting better personnel and management policies as well as practices and the big expansion in the field organizations of some Central Departments—have been well brought out in addition to the description of the routine administrative structure and practices.

Part III relates to the Central direction and co-ordination provided by the Cabinet, the financial control and the Common Services. The description of the Cabinet's role within the administration will be of interest to us in India where the Cabinet system is still in its initial stage of development.

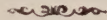
In Part IV is delineated the impact of Parliament upon the position and work of the civil servants. This is again of considerable interest to us in this country where the proper adjustment between the respective position of Parliament and civil servants has yet to be adequately attained. The authors have also taken into account the relationship which exists between the Central Administrative Departments on one side and the Local Authorities as well as the independent public bodies on the other. They have also touched upon the attitude of the administration towards the people and pressure groups and vice versa. This description of the new administrative problems in the rapidly developing welfare State in Britain would certainly be of interest to people in India as well as in any other country which is struggling to orient by administrative system to make it serve the needs of a new Democracy engaged on welfare planning.

The book, however, suffers from a few limitations. In the first place, the authors have not been as critical and analytical in their approach as one would have wished. They have devoted most of the space to the description of the administration and its traditions while their comments on some of the administrative controversies facing post-war Britain are rather meagre. For example, the position of the specialist in the administrative hierarchy, the social origins of the higher civil servants, the need for controlling the growing power of the administrative tribunals deserve a fuller treatment in a

book on Central Administration. Again, one would have wished for a somewhat fuller account of the relationship between the Public Corporations and British Parliament which has been arousing considerable interest in the country.

Secondly, the authors of the book have not made any significant comparisons between the administrative system in Britain and that of any other democratic country. One feels that a comparative study might have enabled the authors to offer broad reflections in the field of Public Administration which would have added to the value of the book to the teacher, the administrator and the advanced student.

—B. S. Khanna



We wish to inform the readers of this *Journal* that the article on "Henley and Hyderabad" by Mr. J.W.L. Adams published in our last (January-March, 1958) issue did not contain the text as originally contributed by him; the MS was modified in several places to bring it to the standard pattern of articles published in the *Journal*. As Mr. Adams has since expressed a wish that the original text of his article should be made available to our subscribers, it is being published and circulated separately.

